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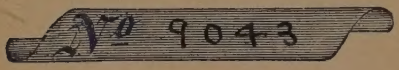

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ENGLISH HIGH SCHOOLS FOR GIRLS

ENGLISH HIGH SCHOOLS FOR GIRLS

THEIR AIMS, ORGANISATION, AND MANAGEMENT

BY

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INTRODUCTION.

THE following pages represent the endeavour, incomplete and partial as the work of any one student must be, to sketch the characteristic aims, organisation and methods of a modern English High School for Girls as these have grown up during the latter half of the nineteenth century, and as they are developing to suit the wants and difficulties of to-day. Broadly speaking, such schools are day schools with the direct intention of correlation between the school and the home in the girl's daily life; the writer's experience, indeed, has been almost entirely with such schools. The new schools which are being founded by local authorities are also for day pupils. It follows that the day school is the type mainly described here, but much in the matter of general educational principle and method applies equally well to boarding schools, and among the appendices is a note on the system of separate boarding houses sometimes attached to a high school. The type of school mentioned is also in the main public or proprietary, not private, and for the same reasons.

But here again also the sections dealing with actual teaching and organisation apply equally well to the school which is owned and fully controlled by a private individual.

The question of the co-education of boys and girls, important and interesting as it is, is outside the reference of this book, which deals with schools for girls only, and with the system and methods which have grown up in England under the influence of women who thought mainly, almost entirely, of the needs of their own sex in education, since boys were already well provided with schools.

The whole subject of girls' education is a very wide one and must be considered in sections.

First must come its aims and ideals, and the limits of that part of it which lies within the province of this book, namely, secondary education, as distinguished from primary or elementary, and from university or tertiary education.

The characteristics of a girls' high school, as explained in part by the historic evolution of such schools between 1850 and 1900, are suggested, and some discussion of possible differences in the education of boys and girls follows. An attempt is then made to analyse the aims and ideals of education for girls, and in broad outline to state the means required to carry these into practice. Then it is necessary to consider the organisation for the performance of such work. At once two divisions of the subject appear, which may be termed external and internal organisation; the first deals with the

relation of the girls' school to the community and to other educational institutions, its place in the organisation of education administratively; this division thus includes some treatment of the types of schools fitted for different localities and conditions, questions of finance and government, of endowments and grants, the legal status of a high school as well as the connection with primary or preparatory schools on the one hand, and the universities or technical colleges on the other. To these subjects Chapter II. is devoted. The second division, internal organisation, explains itself; it is a question of how a given school is arranged for the performance of educational work. To this is devoted Chapter III., which treats of the form system, bifurcation and specialisation, junior departments, hours and length of school sessions. The teacher herself is next considered, even prior to the building and equipment, since the living influence of a personality is more vital in education than the material body of brick or stone in which a school dwells. Chapter IV. deals with the qualifications, duties, appointment and salary of the teacher, the functions of the form mistress and the organisation of her work, and the division of subjects among teachers.

In Chapter V., building and equipment, on which whole books have been written, are treated briefly, and in special relation to the needs of girls and women.

The next five chapters are devoted to the pupil; first comes the healthy body (Chapter VI.), which

involves physical training and games as well as personal hygiene. The relation of school and home is dealt with in part at this point. Then follows the question of securing the healthy mind; curriculum, time-tables (Chapter VII.), methods of teaching (Chapter VIII.), with a note on the use of a school library.

Last to be considered, as it is in part the product of physical and mental conditions, is character, and that part of a school life which deals definitely and explicitly with the training of character, discipline (Chapter IX.), form management and moral influences (Chapter X.). Closely connected with this last is the matter of personal relations (Chapter XI.), though here the subject no longer concerns the pupil, but touches on parents, head and assistant mistresses, and the world without, in their mutual interaction. To-day it seems necessary, in view of the importance of the subject in England, to set aside a chapter (XII.) for the treatment of tests and awards, examinations, scholarships, inspections. For similar reasons it is desirable to consider separately (Chapter XIII.) the place of technical subjects in a high school course; namely, domestic arts, music and painting, arts and crafts, and secretarial work.

The last chapter (XIV., "Social Life in a Day School") is an endeavour to summarise what is done in some of the existing day schools to develop corporate life and public spirit.

Of necessity the views and opinions of any one person must be partial and incomplete, must repre-

sent one tradition of professional practice, and must be coloured by the feelings, experiences, and even the prejudices of the particular professional expert, physician, engineer, or teacher. There is, indeed, a marked degree of variation in English girls' secondary schools, owing to the freedom they have had to grow up for themselves from the beginning, and make their own traditions, and owing also to the marked variety of English social life, which is reflected so definitely in the English school system. It may well be, then, that the present writer may state some principles which are not true universally, or even generally, over the area of the subject, and may ignore, through ignorance, much that is valuable and sound. But it is hoped that at least an approximation is made to what a typical description should be.

Professor Sadler's Reports on certain counties and towns have been largely used and are often quoted, and special acknowledgment of the valuable help gained from them is gladly made. Useful suggestions and comparisons have been drawn from the official French "Rapport Général," 1899, of the Enquiry into Secondary Education (*Enquête sur l'Enseignement Secondaire*), made by a special parliamentary commission of French educators. Much scattered information has been gleaned from educational pamphlets and fugitive articles or addresses, too numerous to be separately acknowledged. The author has not scrupled to reproduce passages from such work of her own, prepared for professional

conferences, when suitable for a more permanent purpose. Three of the appendices are official documents issued by the Association of Head Mistresses and the Association of Assistant Mistresses, and the diagram in Appendix G is reproduced by kind permission of Mr. J. H. Reynolds, Director of Higher Education for Manchester. For details concerning the many important high schools of the Girls' Public Day Schools Trust reference should be made to the Secretary, Queen Anne's Gate, London.

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CHAPTER I.

THE AIM OF GIRLS' EDUCATION.

THERE is much to be said for the old-fashioned plan of beginning a subject by defining the terms used in it, more particularly when such attempt at definition at once reveals the difficulties implicit in a phrase. What is education? What is a girls' high school?—are questions which are much easier to ask than to answer. Definitions of the first word may be drawn from many sources;[1] it may suffice here to state that the kind of education dealt with in these pages includes four objects: the formation of character; intellectual training; the acquisition of knowledge; and technical skill in some at least of the activities of later life. It is effected chiefly through the personal influence of the teacher on the pupil, which is the centre of all education.

A girls' high school is by genus a school giving girls a secondary education, generally under some degree of public control; that is, it is not conducted by an individual for private profit. It belongs as a rule to some corporate body, company, trust, local education authority, board of governors, etc., who own or rent the building, engage, pay and dismiss the staff, receive the fees through a clerk or other official, and are generally responsible for the management. This definition itself brings up another difficult phrase—"Secondary Education". What is this? Authority after authority has tried in vain to define it, though

[1] See Appendix A.

most of us know what it means. The highest English Government authority, the Board of Education at Whitehall, defines a secondary school thus, in its official regulations:—

> For the purpose of these Regulations the term Secondary school means a day or boarding school which offers to each of its scholars a general education of a wider scope and higher grade than that of an ordinary Elementary school, given through a complete progressive course of instruction continuing up to and beyond the age of sixteen.

Here the relation of secondary to primary or elementary education is suggested; nothing is said of its relation to tertiary or higher education. This is that given in a university or institution of university standing. In general, however, university education must be preceded by secondary education. The easiest way of understanding the difference between the three kinds is by considering the limits of age. Primary education begins between three and six years of age, and finishes at twelve, thirteen or fourteen. Secondary education may begin at various ages, but is intended to end at sixteen, seventeen or eighteen. Tertiary, higher or university education cannot well begin before sixteen: eighteen is the usual age; and it ends about the legal age of twenty-one, at which adult life begins.

The Board of Education lays down a rule that there must be an approved Four Years' Course in a secondary school, intended to cover the years from twelve to sixteen, providing "instruction in the English language and literature; at least one language other than English, Geography, History, Mathematics, Science and Drawing" (Regulations, p. 4). Many girls' secondary schools cover not four years but ten (eight to eighteen); all would be found to comply at least with the Board's requirements stated above.

The distinction between the three kinds of education is one of age, ability, and curriculum; it ought to have nothing to do with social class. Mr. Birrell, then Minister of Education, speaking at Leeds in the spring of 1906, said:—

> Still more would one regret if the vulgar notion were to get embodied in anybody's mind that elementary education was something for the children of artisans and agricultural labourers, that secondary education belonged to the children of the professional, shopkeeping and middle class, while university education was the luxury of the rich. That would be a detestable idea. And it would be a retrograde idea, something quite alien and hostile to the education in this country even as it was carried on in the fifteenth, sixteenth, seventeeth and eighteenth centuries.

As a matter of fact, however, the children of the poorer classes are obliged to go out to work earlier, and thus the limits of age and cost in the three kinds of education bring in a certain element of class distinction. This is happily minimised by the provision of scholarships and maintenance allowances, out of public funds or endowments from the past, so that brilliant or even clever boys and girls may go right on to the highest university standards.

Historically, the girls' high schools were founded in the first instance for the daughters of the middle classes, professional and trading, who could afford to pay fees covering part, sometimes the whole, of the cost of education. A very brief historical survey may make the subject clearer.

There began in England about 1848-50 a very remarkable movement for the better education of women; it was marked by the establishment of women's colleges in London, Cambridge, Oxford and elsewhere, as well as by the opening of different kinds of secondary schools for girls. It was helped by public-spirited and chivalrous men, but it was mainly carried on by women. Of these certain are reverenced as pioneers and founders: Frances Mary Buss,

Dorothea Beale, Maria Grey, Anne Jemima Clough, who are no longer living; there are others still with us, of whom we must name one, Miss Emily Davies, founder of Girton College.

In studying this development of girls' education, we are at the outset faced by the question of origin and causes. Why did this movement begin about 1850? Why did the nineteenth century see the wide diffusion of new ideals for women and the successful struggle against the limitations of the past? To these questions we can give no satisfactory answer. No great mind has yet grappled with the history, the philosophy, the details of research necessary for such a labour; no writer on the subject has been gifted with insight keen and true enough to explain for us so remarkable a phase of human progress. There are of course broad and general influences which must have acted throughout the century: the vast and far-reaching waves of thought and action set up by that great explosion, the French Revolution; the spiritual movements associated with the names of Wesley, Simeon, Newman, Pusey, Maurice; the effect of political reforms, themselves effect and cause of deeper reformation in the mind and life of the nation; the enlightening power of scientific conceptions and modes of thought, the work of Darwin and Mill, Spencer and Martineau, which liberated reason from the superstitions and prejudices of the past;—all these had their share in bringing about the creation of girls' education as they brought about other good things in the Victorian era. The Reform Bill of 1832 gave the middle classes political power; thirty years later they might well need and appreciate efficient schools for their daughters; the Oxford Movement in the forties was bringing back mediæval ideals of womanhood, recalling stately ladies like the Abbess Hilda, leaders of thought and inspirers of action like Catherine of Siena and Theresa of Spain. Since 1837

the influence of the Queen and the Court had roused the chivalry and elevated the standards of society, and as the century rolled on the liberation of intellect, begun as far back as the period of the Renaissance, was continued and extended by men of science.

Miss Zimmern in her book (*The Renaissance of Girls' Education*) published for the Jubilee of the College Movement in 1898, attaches great importance to the influence of the sovereign:—

> The benefits which a woman's reign always confers on women have been experienced to the full during the long and peaceful reign of our present Queen. The interest taken by her and the Prince Consort in art and letters, in the general improvement of the people, set an example that was readily followed. Ladies of the upper and middle classes began to take a keener interest in the lives of the poor, and in dealing with the problems they thus encountered were often brought to realise their own want of education.

It may be said too that the general advance in wealth and civilisation tended to help the cause of women.

However this may be, there is no doubt as to the rapidity with which the movement spread. In 1848 the first women's colleges in London—Queen's and Bedford—were established. In 1850 Frances Mary Buss began her school, which was soon made more public in character, and after a long struggle was established and endowed by a scheme of the Privy Council as a first grade public school. The Ladies' College, Cheltenham, was opened in 1853, had Miss Beale as its head in 1858, and grew rapidly under her influence. The women's colleges began between 1869 and 1875. The Royal Commission of 1864-67, to inquire into the state of secondary schools, took cognisance of girls' schools. The National Union for the Higher Education of Women was founded in 1871 by Maria (Mrs. William) Grey, and the Girls' Public Day

Schools Company established in the next year under the patronage of H.R.H. Princess Louise (now Duchess of Argyll). Its first school was at Chelsea, January, 1873; the Notting Hill High School was opened the following September, and many others followed, till in 1875 the Company had in its schools 700 girls.[1] The North of England meanwhile had awakened, largely under the influence of Miss Clough, to the need of improving girls' education. In January, 1874, the Manchester High School was founded by a number of Manchester citizens, men and women, of whom two, Miss Gaskell and Mr. E. Donner, still remain on the governing body. In ten years it had become, like the Frances Mary Buss School, a first grade public endowed school under a scheme. The King Edward's Schools for girls, Birmingham, the Harpur Trust Schools at Bedford, the Bradford and Leeds Girls' Grammar Schools came into being in the same momentous decade, 1872-82. The culmination of the movement is generally taken to be the opening of degrees to women at the University of London in 1879, and the "Three Graces" of the Senate of the University of Cambridge in 1881, admitting women of right to the Tripos examinations.

When, between 1865 and 1875 the movements that gave rise to the girls' high school began, the cardinal faults of girls' education were, as the Schools Inquiry Commission reported (1867)—

> Want of thoroughness and foundation; slovenliness and showy superficiality; inattention to rudiments; undue time given to accomplishments, and these not taught intelligently or in any scientific manner; want of organisation.

Thus the reformers and pioneers emphasised the ideal of accuracy and thoroughness, and advocated the study of mathematics and Latin to this end. Miss Emily Davies urged :—

[1] In 1900 it had 7,000.

The strengthening of the mind by studies of a bracing nature, and its enrichment by the acquisition of knowledge are among the duties of life (*Home and the Higher Education*, 1878).

Miss Isabella Tod writes (*On the Education of Girls of the Middle Classes*, 1874):—

This study (mathematics) offers peculiar advantages for the correction of the mental errors to which the neglect of real culture has made women liable.

She also advocates the study of Latin and Greek. She expresses admirably the general aim:—

It is indeed in the first place on the duty of enabling them to be whatever Heaven *meant them to be* that we ground the claim of women to a full participation in the blessings of a liberal education. There is but one true theory of education for men and women alike; just as there is but one religion, one morality.

These statements also express Miss Buss's views; the passages which may be quoted from the record of her life (*Frances Mary Buss and her Work for Education*, by Annie E. Ridley) emphasise another side of the subject, the need of qualifying girls to earn a living. She writes in 1871:—

But as I have grown older the terrible sufferings of the women of my own class[1] for want of good elementary training have more than ever intensified my desire to lighten, ever so little, the misery of women brought up "to be married and taken care of," and left alone in the world destitute. It is impossible for words to express my fixed determination of alleviating this evil.

Miss Ridley, describing her friend, also writes, p. 42:—

In one of this girl's early sayings—"Why are women so little thought of? I would have girls trained to match their brothers!"—we have the keynote of her harmonious life. It

[1] Miss Buss was the daughter of an artist.

was experience transmuted into sympathy. In the stress of her own girlish efforts she gained her life-long feeling for the half-educated, on whom is too early laid the burden of money-getting.

We may quote also the words of an old pupil from p. 79:—

> Seeing, as she did, numbers of these, she was very strongly impressed by the absolute necessity for young girls to be trained to some employment by which they might, if necessary, earn a livelihood. For women to be dependent on brothers and relations, she considered an evil to be avoided at all costs, and she tried to keep before us the fact that training for any work must develop a woman's intellect and powers, and therefore made her—married or single—a better and nobler being.

Thus, into the schools officered by teachers who knew how hard it was for gentlewomen to earn a living, there entered also the ideal of giving to girls of the middle class the thoroughness and accuracy and real intellectual training which would fit them to work like their professional brothers for something like a living wage. This, as well as the desire to enter into the inheritance of learning so long possessed only by men, led to girls following the lines laid down by men in the past. A powerful influence in this direction was also found in the need of showing that women could do the work of a university career, and were worthy of its opportunities.

It was this principle that made Miss Buss fight so strenuously for the opening of examinations to girls and women on exactly the same terms as to boys and men, which made her welcome Girton College so enthusiastically and send her girls there, and later, when London University opened its degrees to women, which made her so deeply attached to an institution which at last gave women an absolutely equal chance with men. This characteristic has coloured the tradition in which her old girls have been brought up; in this generation we find them

ardently supporting the newer Universities likeManchester and Wales, while the Frances Mary Buss Schools themselves are now most intimately related to the University of London and to the London County Council's system of Scholarships.

Miss Beale's views may be found clearly stated by herself in the book *Work and Play in Girls' Schools* (Introduction). She was not at first so strongly in favour of the identity of standard for boys and girls as were Miss Buss and Miss Emily Davies, though she believed in boys and girls having similar tastes. "Not that I would assimilate the teaching of girls to that of boys, but because the teaching of both should aim at developing to the highest excellence the intellectual powers common to both." She quotes in the Introduction well-known definitions by Milton, Bacon and Ruskin, of education, and continues :—

> So the task of the educator is in the first instance to develop to the highest perfection all the powers of the child, that he may realise the ideal of the All-Father. But the perfection of man . . . can be attained only when as a son he enters into and co-operates with the Divine purpose in thought and heart.
>
> Let us give to girls an invigorating dietary, physical, intellectual, moral; seclusion from evil is impossible, but we can strengthen the patient to resist it.

Miss Beale places first among subjects of study the humanities "which have to do with man—language and literature, history and art, ethics, religion and philosophy". It appears to one whose own tradition is not that of Cheltenham that a marked characteristic of it is the excellence of that side of its work—the humanities—a matter of peculiar importance to the wealthier girls of the social class for which the Ladies' College was from the beginning intended.

The aims of the Girls' Public Day Schools Trust may

be formulated in the words of one of its founders, Mrs. William Grey :—

> Intellectual, moral and physical development, the development of a sound mind in a sound body, the training of reason to form just judgments, the discipline of the will and affections to obey the supreme law of duty, the kindling and strengthening of the love of knowledge, of beauty, of goodness, till they become governing motives of action.

Miss Mary Gurney, another of the founders, quotes this passage in a pamphlet published in 1872. The official statement of the Company as to its purpose runs :—

> To supply for girls the best possible education, corresponding with the education given to boys in the great public schools of the country.

The motto of the Trust is "Knowledge is now no more a fountain sealed".

All these several bodies of workers for the improvement of girls' education believed in large schools, not only on grounds of economy, which was a most important consideration, but on grounds of greater efficiency and better influence on character. They followed the principles laid down by the Schools' Inquiry Commission :—

> Small schools are in themselves as an instrument of instruction commonly inferior to larger ones. . . . Nor are the moral less than the intellectual advantages of a large school. It is easier to create a healthy public opinion.
>
> Assuming, as we may fairly do, that the homes of our middle class are commonly favourable to the growth and development of the female character, we are inclined ourselves to the opinion that in the case of girls more than in that of boys the combination of school teaching with home influence, such as day schools admit of, is the most promising arrangement.

Mr. Bryce's recommendations in the Commissioners' Report are of special interest, as reform has proceeded along the lines he traced. He advised :—

1. The establishment of schools for girls under proper authority and supervision; it would be most desirable to provide in every town large enough a day school for girls under public management.

2. Considerable changes in the course of instruction; it would be proper to lay more stress on arithmetic, introduce mathematics everywhere, and Latin where it was possible to give time enough.

3. The provision of institutions where women could receive the higher education given by the universities to men.

By the study of such material, by going back to the origin of the movement, we can explain from historic causes the characteristics of the girls' high schools. They are, in general, fairly large day schools. They aim at a liberal education, cultivating the whole nature. They take as the standards for this the existing standards of the universities and of boys' education, while they retain from the older type of girls' schools the tradition of English, modern languages, music and art. They seek the most intimate relation with the universities, as the natural founts of all that is highest and best in education. At the same time the schools definitely prepare their girls for work in the world, paid or unpaid, and urge on them the duty of service to the community. One cannot quote many passages from the writings of the founders to this effect; it was by example that they taught this duty; the example of lives devoted to the good of others, whether in professional or public work. In no respect will their influence be more far-reaching and beneficent. Methods, curricula, and types of organisation may change to meet the needs of later years. But the two characteristics the founders fought and lived for, a liberal education in school, and preparation for service to the community when school is over, these are too deeply stamped on the original constitution of the girls' high school ever to pass away.

The peculiar aim of English education, the formation of

character, is so fundamental as to have been taken for granted by women like Frances Mary Buss and Dorothea Beale; here again their example counts for much more than any words or sayings that might be quoted. They were both deeply and sincerely religious, as were many of the pioneers. Thus there was from the beginning in the aim of the schools, unexpressed often, but felt none the less strongly for that, the highest spiritual and moral purpose. This too, we hope, remains inseparable from the tradition; it is shown outwardly in the school prayers with which the work of each day begins, which to offer is a head mistress's greatest privilege. It is embodied in the school routine of order and discipline; it is the moving force of that faithful dealing with the individual girl in times of error, perplexity, sorrow, or joy by which we seek, however feebly and imperfectly, to teach her how to find herself,—and to lose herself.

We have now dealt, though somewhat briefly, with the origins, the aims, the inherited tradition of the high schools. More than a generation has now passed; what of the present, of the future? The philosophical and scientific evolutionary ideas which have been popularised since the publication of Darwin's great book in 1859, the passing of the wave of reform that filled the last century from 1832 to 1880, the new emphasis on Collectivist principles, belief in the State and the claim of the State on the individual, have already begun to affect the education of girls. Greater emphasis is now placed on the *special* duties of women as such to the community, on the basic value to the social organism of the family and the home, on the reality and importance of biological and sociological differences between men and women. As a consequence the schools are asked, or ask for themselves, "Should there be differences between girls' and boys' education?" "What are the special duties of girls and women, their place in

the world, their work in the social order?" If the second question is honestly answered, the first must be answered in the affirmative. There must be differences. Bodily strength and needs are different, and thus the physical education of girls and boys, at least after twelve years of age, must be different. Girls need more rest; they are more susceptible to injury through nervous strain during the years of secondary education. They should not do as much work in a given period as boys. For instance, one may confidently say that if a boy matriculates at sixteen, a girl ought not to matriculate till seventeen years of age.

What differences there may be between the minds of boys and girls is not so easy to state. Boys are probably more original, girls more imitative; a boy will find a new way to do a thing, a girl accepts what she is taught. It appears that boys do better, *ceteris paribus*, in mathematics, chemistry and physics; girls in literature, history and biology. In classics, where one can eliminate the advantage boys have through spending a longer time on the subject, the girls do as well. However, even if these inductions from experience are true, they do not form a substantial basis for differences in educational programmes. After all a girl is a human being, with a right to complete development, to a share in the spiritual inheritance of the race, to the opportunities of making the best of her faculties, of pursuing even advanced studies if she has the ability.

It is when we come to consider the work of education in fitting young people for life that the real difference comes. We see clearly now that the normal work of woman is to be the maker of a home, to be a wife, and above all a mother. Does a liberal education fit her for this? The answer is surely yes, if it makes her a better woman, abler and stronger in body, in intellect, and in character. Thring's opinion ought to be decisive on the point, stated

in his address at Uppingham, 1887, to the Conference of Head Mistresses :—

> Tender growth in the hands of tender but skilful womanhood. From this beginning all manhood starts. This is the key to woman's mission. . . . To form character requires character-power, character-power requires all good life, knowledge of all real factors of life, combined with the perfection of trained skill. . . . Such a mastery demands that women should be trained in limb and head, not as champions of limb and head, but as thoroughly capable in both, so as to be moulders of the character of the world. This defines accurately the aim and object of all womanly excellence in all things belonging to education.

The problem of how far definite technical instruction should be given to girls in school to prepare them for home life is at the moment a burning question. It is discussed in Chapter XII. The task of the schools is however made much more difficult at present by the fact that the normal lot of the wife and mother, economically independent of the necessity to earn a living, is not the lot of all our girls Many, under modern conditions, must work for bread; many others wish before they marry to work for bread and butter rather than waste their days waiting; many will never marry, and must find work to do outside home. Others, in our unstable society, may find their financial resources vanish even after marriage, and be deeply thankful for a professional training which will enable them to support their children as well as themselves. Thus, besides the *human* and the *social* aim in a girls' education, the *professional* must at present be considered. How to combine all these is the arduous task of those who are to-day responsible for the aims and the conduct of the girls' high schools.

Another cause of unsettlement of thought about girls' education is that the training of many girls suffers, often unavoidably, from a divided aim. It would be comparatively easy to frame a curriculum and a course of school training which would fit

a girl for the duties of home life. Again it would be comparatively easy to plan curricula which would give at the least expenditure of time and effort a sound preparation for professional or business life. But the difficulty lies in the fact that the future of so many of the girls is uncertain. They may not eventually decide or need to earn their own living in a professional calling. Their work may lie in domestic duties at home with their parents or in a home of their own. But during their school-days it is necessary, in a large number of cases to prepare them, so far as may be, for either event (M. E. Sadler).

CHAPTER II.

EXTERNAL ORGANISATION.

In studying the administrative organisation of education, the first principle which emerges clearly in England is that of local control, devolution, decentralisation, a principle which obtains even more completely in America. The force of this principle is probably due not only to the historic English belief in local government, but to the fact of the extraordinary variety of types and ideals in our national life. We have never eliminated our minorities; we have preserved feudal and social distinctions into an intensely industrial and democratic era; while the broad geographical distinctions of North and South, town and country, Celt and Saxon, are but the general indication of profound differences in the physical, intellectual and spiritual conditions which inevitably influence educational needs. It would thus be impossible for any one type of school to satisfy the wants of the whole country. Freedom and flexibility must be the notes of any educational organisation in England. This is fully recognised in the official documents of the Board of Education, especially "Regulations for Secondary Schools". For girls the many varieties of type may be classified into four groups: the private school, day or boarding; the high school proper, public or proprietary; the middle school, always of necessity public for financial reasons; the new semi-public costly boarding school. The first is still that in which a very large number of English girls, though possibly not the

majority to-day, receive what is considered to be secondary education; many of the private schools are really giving primary education of a special kind to girls of a higher social class than that which attends the public elementary school, and are under very serious financial disadvantages owing to their low fees. Some with high fees are, like some American private schools, of peculiar excellence.

Very remarkable are those of the fourth group, the new type, corresponding in some respects with the great public schools for boys, where fine buildings, games, the house system for boarders, preparation for college, and very high fees combine to satisfy the requirements of parents who object on various grounds to both the old-fashioned smaller private boarding school and the local high school for girls. These new schools have in some cases begun as private schools, but have assumed a public and permanent character. They are, of course, like the great public schools for boys, non-local. There remains what is probably destined in the future to be the general type, though possibly with some modifications, the public secondary day school for girls, either "first grade" or not. The legal definition of a first grade school is that it may keep its pupils till nineteen years of age and prepare them for college: it is such as St. Paul's, London, or the Manchester Grammar School for boys. This is the high school proper. There is, especially in the South of England, a most important type, the middle school, where the pupils leave at sixteen or seventeen, which does not directly prepare for college, and where the fees are much lower than in the high school, averaging about £3 to £6, whereas the high school fees average from £10 to £15 or more per annum. The new municipal secondary schools which are now being founded and supported out of the rates will probably be intermediate between the two types; such a school will in some

places be definitely a middle school, and in others will be distinguished from the high school only by a difference in the fee. In some towns, *e.g.* Wigan, the high school for girls has itself already been taken over by the municipality, and is supported by the rates, and this process may happen in many places, especially where the high school is small or weak financially. In some of these cases, the high school, when taken over, loses its peculiar character. In other urban areas which are large enough to need two secondary schools, the high school and the municipal secondary school flourish without overlapping. Elsewhere there may be injurious or even fatal competition. In some cases where there is no existing provision, the local authorities will found what is practically a high school from the beginning, as, for example, the new girls' high school at Bridlington in the East Riding of Yorkshire.

The middle school is a characteristic of London, Bedford and Birmingham. There the high school and the middle school are to be found working side by side, each answering the demand of a particular section of the population. Scholarships provide for the transfer of abler pupils from the middle school to the high school at fifteen to sixteen years of age. The two schools in the North of London founded by Frances Mary Buss, the North London Collegiate, with a fee of £20, and the Camden School, with a fee of £8, under the same governing body, and working in harmony, present an interesting example. So do also the two schools, the High and the Middle at Bedford on the Harpur Foundation, and the elaborate organisation in Birmingham under the King Edward VI. Trust, with three grammar schools for girls (fee £4 10s.) and one central high school (fee £12).

As secondary education for girls develops in England it will be seen whether all these types will persist; it is to be hoped so, as each has its own characteristic merits.

New types may arise, possibly a technical secondary school for girls, like the American manual training high school for boys, in which training in domestic subjects and arts and crafts may take a leading place in the curriculum. Investigation and experiment in this direction would be of great educational value; there is much to be said both for and against such a type of school.

It is obvious that the question of the need and the supply of secondary education must depend very closely on the character of the population in any given locality and on the way it is distributed. There must be an effective demand, and if the schools are to be day schools for girls, they should be within easy reach of the pupils' homes. As things are, what is called a residential district in a city will exercise an effective demand, while a working class district will not. Rural areas again present two problems of peculiar difficulty in the case of girls; the houses are scattered, and there are few tram or omnibus services, though the train is sometimes helpful. While boarding houses or schools are sometimes available, very often the scanty means of parents forbid such a solution. Probably the co-educational school for boys and girls in the small towns which are the centres of rural districts will be the ultimate organisation. Some areas will be best served by a higher elementary school, like the colliery villages in Derbyshire.

It is difficult to lay down any general rule even as to the number of pupils per thousand of population who require a secondary education. The materials on which statistics could be based hardly exist as yet in England, but the best authorities incline to state the proportion for girls as from four to five per thousand. In Prussia it is 3·68; in Birmingham, 5; in Hamburg, 11·7 in public and private schools combined. For boys and girls together,

the following numbers per thousand of population[1] obtain in the places shown:—

Manchester	5·
Liverpool	7·84
London	10·
Bristol	11·
Newcastle	12·67
Birkenhead	15·3
England	8·5
Prussia	9·34
United States	9·5
North Central Section, U.S.A.	12·
New England towns	22·

There is a remarkable variation in these figures due to differences in the effective demand, which varies according to the character of the district and the means of the parents, their ideas for their children, their belief in the value of a secondary education and the actual supply of secondary schools. If we take five per thousand as the standard for girls alone, it follows that the population must be 25,000 to 30,000 before a girls' secondary school of even moderate numbers (125 to 150) can be supported, while it follows equally that large cities with residential districts can keep up more than one school. At present it is generally considered that several schools of 150 to 300 pupils in suburban districts, away from the business centres of cities, are for obvious reasons of health and convenience preferable to a larger central school supplying the whole area; but here again much depends on the locality, its topography, means of communication, etc. Great cities with a large secondary education population, like the western half of London, may require both types; schools like the new St. Paul's Girls' School, in the outer suburban ring, also others towards the centre. There are

[1] These figures are taken from Prof. Sadler's Reports or from Mr. Fletcher, H.M.I., in *Moseley Commission Report*, p. 132. The figures for London and England are probably now too small, since they date before the Act of 1902.

indications of this double need in the Manchester-Salford area, which supports both central and suburban schools, in Liverpool-Birkenhead, and in Leeds.

It is found in practice that the character of a school varies according to its size, as might perhaps be expected; the school of 120 pupils must clearly be a very different thing from the school of thrice the number. Perhaps we may say there are three main varieties, according to size: the school of 100 to 150 pupils, which is a *small* high school; the school from 150 to 300, or even 350, which is the *normal* type; and the really large school, of 400 to 500. No one girls' school should exceed 500; some judges think 300 the limit, which, it may be remembered, was Thring's limit for Uppingham, since it was the number of boys he could really know. Many head mistresses find it very difficult to know personally 450 pupils; very few can reach 500. The disadvantages of a school numbering 1,000 are strongly emphasised in the French *Rapport Général* of 1899, where the reformers demand as essential the "dédoublement" of the large Lycées, *i.e.*, the splitting of such schools into two.

Since personal influence is the main force in secondary education, it would appear that the upper limit of numbers is fixed by the limits of human capacity; the lower limit, on the other hand, is fixed by the necessities of internal organisation, as we shall see in the next chapter. Here it is sufficient to state that if the school covers eight years of life, from ten to eighteen, it must have eight forms at least, and with an average of only fifteen in each form (which is too low for economical working) 120 is the minimum for a satisfactory classification. If the school covers only the four years' course, twelve to sixteen years of age, with twenty-five in a form, it may work with a minimum of 100 or even 80, since not all will remain to the fourth year.

The difference between the three types, small, normal,

large, must be seen and felt to be fully understood. The small type, up to 150, has special virtues for girls; it needs few rules, every one knows every one else, the influence of the head is closely felt by every individual pupil, and the general tone may be almost that of a family, so intimate, sympathetic, and united is it. On the other hand this type is relatively much more costly, the classification is not so minute and discriminating, and it is sometimes not possible to give the same intellectual advantages and stimulus as in a larger school. Pupils and teachers, however, who have begun with a school when it was small, and see it grow to 200 or so, generally declare that the earlier days were the best.

A school of the normal type, which in general runs from 200 to 250, is, compared with the small, more economical, admits of better classification and the employment of several specialist teachers, while it is not so large as to become formal, mechanical, over-organised, or to dilute too thinly, among over-powering numbers, the personal influence of the head.

It is difficult for one whose own experience, whether as pupil or teacher, has lain in schools of the third type, over 400, to write of them dispassionately. Their dangers and difficulties are stated when we have recounted the advantages of smaller schools. Chief of these dangers undoubtedly are: first, formalism, elaborate rules, mechanical system; second, a lack of unity; third, the isolation and remoteness of the head from the individual pupil. All these, however, can be minimised, if not overcome; the first, if the rulers are sensible and human, and the building well planned; the second, if the forces that make for union and fellowship are strong; the third, if the particular head mistress is a strong personality. Furthermore, the great school, as it was shaped and developed by leaders like Frances Mary Buss and Dorothea Beale, has impressive

advantages of its own. Its classification can provide with peculiar minuteness for every type of pupil; its intellectual equipment, both in the *personnel* for advanced teaching and in the *matériel* for laboratories and libraries, can be of the highest type; and, best of all, it has a characteristic dignity and power over those who are fortunate enough to belong to it, which is of no mean effect in the development of their natures. They learn "to see life steadily and see it whole" in the bracing atmosphere of a great school with a great tradition. Such a school fits a girl admirably for life; especially a life of struggle, whether with circumstance or with the world. We, who belong to them, who owe often what is best in our lives to their influence, feel for them what public school men feel for the Greyfriars of Thackeray, the Rugby of Tom Brown, or the Clifton of Newbolt.

> Here, my son,
> Your father thought the thoughts of youth,
> And heard the words that one by one,
> The touch of Life has turned to truth.
> Here, in a day that is not far,
> You, too, may speak with noble ghosts.
> . . . . . .
> To-day and here the fight's begun,
> Of the great fellowship you're free,
> Henceforth the school and you are one.
> And what you are, the race shall be.[1]

Cost.

The phrase, the sinews of war, is well enough known, and the need of a war chest of gold is a commonplace of the military expert. Equally vital is the question of finance in education, and nowhere has this been more misunderstood than in the secondary education of girls. Few persons realise the true cost of such education, still

[1] *The Island Race*, "Clifton Chapel".

fewer what the true cost ought to be if the teachers were adequately paid, and the cost of building and equipment included. The actual fee paid is not at all the same thing as the cost of education per pupil; as a matter of fact higher education of every kind, from the universities downward, is paid for only in part by fees; the money has come from endowments, from grants of public money out of the Imperial Exchequer, and, since the Act of 1902, out of the rates levied by local authorities; even in some places from gifts by individuals, though not to anything like the same extent as in America.

In the great schools for boys the finance question is complicated by the boarding fees, which often make it possible for masters to receive a good income. Only in private and in certain types of proprietary schools does the equation cost = fees hold, and considering what the real cost of a good education ought to be, and what the average secondary school parent can afford to pay for each of his children, it will be manifest that too often either the teachers and the schools must be starved, or that the education which costs little is worth even less. A table of the cost per boy in certain well-known first grade secondary schools will make the matter clear.

COST OF SECONDARY EDUCATION FOR BOYS.[1]

School.	Average No. of Boys.	Average Cost per Head.
Manchester Grammar School . .	746	£18 4 5
Norwich Grammar School . . .	116	20 9 8
A Day School near London . . .	254	21 16 0
Nottingham High School . . .	329	23 0 9
St. Paul's School	600	41 17 11

These amounts are independent of the capital cost of the original building and equipment, which may be anything from £50 to £110 per pupil without any extravagance.

Details as to what should happen in a girls' school are

[1] Report on Essex, M. E. Sadler, p. 44.

given in a pamphlet published by the Head Mistresses' Association.[1] In this the cost of the *teaching staff* only per annum varies according to the size of the school, from £15 per pupil in a small school to £9 5s. in a large one. This estimate does not include expenses of equipment and administration, heating, lighting, cleaning, rates and taxes, etc., etc., as these vary much from place to place. In a large and first-rate London school, where the salaries and fees are high, where there are no grants, and only a very small endowment for equipment, the cost per pupil is balanced by the fee, which averages £20. In the King Edward's High School for Girls in Birmingham, where the fee is £12 and where one-third of the pupils are free scholars, it is stated that 34 per cent. of the cost is defrayed by the fees (Report by Professor Hughes, p. 19).

It would appear from this that the cost per pupil approaches the £20 of the London example. In the Manchester High School, with an average fee of £12 12s., and with grants from the Board of Education and from the local authorities, and with £250 a year endowment from the Hulme Trust for repairs and equipment, the cost per pupil works out at £14 8s. (1906-1907).

The Girls' Public Day School Trust charges an average fee of nearly £15 in their High Schools, and since these have no endowments and few grants, the fee must in general balance the cost of maintenance. The average in seven of their schools in 1903 was £13 4s. 3d. The smaller schools of the Trust cost more, and any loss is made up by the surplus on larger schools.

Professor Sadler in his Liverpool report considers that the cost ought to be £15 to £18, and recommends a fee of £9.

It is clear then that a middle or second grade secondary school (where pupils leave at sixteen), charging a fee of £3 to £6 cannot pay its expenses, even if the teachers

[1] See Appendix B.

are less highly qualified and the classes larger than in a first grade high school. Such schools are supported by endowments, Board of Education grants and rates. The true cost for them ought probably to be £11 to £12, and may be only £10. The increased grant under the new regulations of £5 per pupil encourages local authorities to establish such schools. It must be remembered, however, that a good proportion of free places must be provided, which will add somewhat to the local burden. If a local authority opens such a school, and there is no endowment, the parents may pay a fee of £3 or more, while the Board of Education grant will be £5 per pupil under the new regulations; the balance to come out of the rates ought to be £3 to £4, plus the cost of the free places per pupil per annum.

If the school is to be really first grade, attract the best teachers and have smaller classes, it should cost at least £16 10s. per pupil. If the fee were even £6 and the Government grant £5 as before, the charge on the rates would be £5 10s. per pupil, together with the cost of all the free places. This simple calculation explains why the municipal secondary schools tend, on the whole, to be of the middle school type.

All these amounts are for maintenance only, and do not take into account the capital cost for site, buildings and equipment. It is almost taken for granted that these should be provided out of public funds, endowments, gifts, rates. It is quite easy to spend £30,000 on a building and site for 500 pupils, without extensive playgrounds and beautiful architecture.

What determines cost is, most of all, the number of pupils to a teacher. The variation in the cost for maintenance in different schools depends mostly on this. Obviously if fifteen pupils have a teacher to themselves, their education should cost nearly twice as much as if the class

consisted of thirty. When parents can pay higher fees, or when the particular school is wealthy, the pupils can get more individual attention, and up to a certain point the education will, *ceteris paribus*, be proportionately better.

Endowments and Grants.

Part of the cost of education in England of every type, from the university downwards, is met from what are called *endowments*. These are in general understood by us, but the meaning of the word is not always clear at first sight to Americans and foreigners. Ours is an old country that has had no revolutions; it has at the same time gradually changed and altered its laws and its political system to suit new needs. From the earliest times public spirited persons have spent their money and thought in establishing schools and colleges in different parts of England; they have settled property, especially real property, *i.e.* land, upon these institutions, which have obtained from the sovereign or the courts or in some way or another a legal status as corporations. They may also have been entrusted to corporate bodies, a Dean and Chapter of a Cathedral, a City Company or Trade Gild, the Mayor and Corporation of a borough, and so forth, who act as trustees of the property. Such a school or college is *endowed*. Hospitals, parish or other churches, and various charitable institutions are in the same legal position, there being always at any given time some corporate body which administers the property. We consider, however, in England that this property is under the control of the State, and that the State can regulate the way it is held and used. Educational endowments, like others, have increased in value—in some cases enormously increased—in the course of time. The State has intervened in such cases through Parliament, inquired into the administration and

value of the property, the way the revenue is spent, and the educational needs of the district; if it has seemed desirable the State has made new rules for the tenure and use of such property. One of the new methods of use has been to allot such funds to the establishment and support of schools for *girls*. In some cases the property may have been left for the education of *children*, and the boys in the course of time have monopolised it; in other cases it was undoubtedly left for the education of men and boys. But if the amount is large, it has been considered that the public interest is best served by giving some of the advantage to girls, as the "pious founder" might have done had he or she been living to-day. There are most interesting cases of this kind; the King Edward VI. schools in Birmingham; the St. Paul's Schools in London, of which the Mercers' Company are trustees, the Girls' School, which is very wealthy, perhaps the wealthiest of girls' schools, being opened only within the last few years; the Harpur Trust at Bedford, the Bradford and Bury Grammar Schools, and many many others scattered all over the country. Some areas are almost without educational endowment. Liverpool is one of these, the old grammar schools having perished.[1] Manchester, on the other hand, is fortunate in having as well as the Grammar School, founded 1515 by Hugh Oldham, a very valuable educational endowment, administered by the Hulme Trustees, who were appointed by Parliament in the last century to manage a property which had increased enormously in value. This money, which was originally left in trust to be used in scholarships for youths at college, is now distributed among various educational institutions, Brazenose College, Oxford, the University of Manchester, the Hulme Grammar School for boys, etc., etc., and three local *Girls'* Grammar and High Schools, the Manchester High School

[1] See *History of Liverpool*, Ramsey Muir, 1907.

for Girls receiving an endowment of £1,000 per annum to be spent for the most part on scholarships, £400 of it on exhibitions to take *girls* to college. The property has of late further increased in value, and a new scheme for its administration has recently gone through Parliament. The Hulme Trustees are persons of high standing and public importance in Manchester, and they appoint representatives on the governing bodies of the various schools their money endows.

London, where the City Companies or Gilds were preserved, and not destroyed as they were under Edward VI., elsewhere, possesses very large resources of this kind. Many of these Companies have been distinguished for their success in administering these funds for education by establishing new schools and reviving old ones. The Clothworkers' Company has taken the lead in helping girls and women in all kinds of ways; it and the Brewers' Company, which holds property in St. Pancras, have endowed the Frances Mary Buss Schools. The Clothworkers' Scholarships to college have given invaluable assistance to many young women. Old funds for purposes now obsolete, such as the apprenticing of boys to extinct trades or the observance of forgotten festivals, have been diverted to educational purposes, especially to scholarships from public elementary schools to places of higher education. All this has been done by Parliament, either directly by Acts, or indirectly through Commissioners and Boards, whose Schemes for the administration of endowments are laid before the Houses and if not objected to after a certain time become law.

We have dwelt at some length on this subject of endowments, as it is not easy to understand, and as it is of great importance in the development of English secondary education. The process is still going on;[1] the Corporation of

[1] See the Report of the Board of Education for 1905-6 (Wyman & Sons).

the City of London has become trustee for property left in Queen Victoria's reign to found a City of London School for Girls; the Royal Holloway College was established in 1887 by a modern founder by will; the women's colleges at Cambridge and even at Oxford are gradually becoming enriched by gifts and bequests, though their resources are very meagre compared with those enjoyed by the men's colleges founded by women at Oxford and Cambridge. One wonders whether Lady Margaret to-day would transfer her endowments from St. John's to Girton, and Lady Dervorgilla de Balliol hers to Somerville, or if Queen Elizabeth would found a new Westminster for girls by the Thames.

The legal government and status of a girl's secondary school, if endowed, is that of any other corporate body administering property. Such bodies are established by a State document of some kind, which with such schools is generally a scheme of the Privy Council or of the Board of Education. This is a constitution, naming a governing body, stating rules for its continuance and proceedings, giving it power to do such and such acts, and in general laying down general rules for the management of the school, defining, *e.g.* the age of pupils, the subjects to be studied, the powers and duties of the head mistress and assistants, tenure, fees, the type of religious instruction if any, the award of scholarships and so forth. Such schools as these are in England termed Public Schools. Other schools are established under the Companies Acts, the governing body being analogous to a Board of Directors but no profit being made; these schools are called Proprietary. Some belong to ecclesiastical or philanthropic organisations such as Sisterhood Schools, the Masonic Schools, and others. The Society of Friends has a very elaborate organisation of its own.

If a school is established by the local authority under

the Act of 1902, it is managed by the Education Committee of the County or City Council, generally through a sub-committee; it is a County or Municipal School, and resembles in legal status an American Public High School.

The Board of Education, part of the Central Government, directly controls, though in a distant and non-committal fashion, all public endowed schools, especially if working under Schemes, since it may inquire as to how the Scheme has been obeyed. It has an indirect control of a much more detailed and effective character over all secondary schools which claim its grants. This system is of recent origin, and is being modified from year to year (Regulations for Secondary Schools in force from 1st August, 1907: presented to both Houses of Parliament by command of His Majesty. Cd. 3592. Wyman & Sons).

The cost of good secondary education is so high, and the fees possible so low, that the schools have claimed these grants, even when they did not altogether like the conditions. The grants have varied from £2 to £5 per pupil over twelve years of age in the "Four Years' Course". Under the new rules they will be £5 for every pupil between twelve to eighteen following an approved course, *if the schools comply with certain conditions.* If not, the grant will be £2 10s., or may not be given at all. The subject is a burning one at present and the future uncertain, so that further discussion of the subject here would be inopportune. Some of the wealthier schools have preserved their freedom and independence of grants, some less wealthy have found the few hundreds a year very welcome. The municipal secondary schools could not have been carried on at all without these grants; the burden on the rates would have been too oppressive. Thus the new £5 grant, the conditions for which municipal schools fulfil, will encourage the establishment of such schools.

Relations of Primary, Secondary and University Education.

The relation of the secondary to the public elementary school is an even more thorny question, on which opinion is sharply divided. Unfortunately, there has been in England, owing to historic causes and to the influence of class feeling, a great gulf between secondary and primary education. This is now being filled up and bridged; but it is still there, and it will take this generation of educational experts all they can do to complete the work. This gulf is not to be closed by the sacrifice of one heroic figure. It must be filled up bit by bit, as Stephenson did at Chat Moss, largely by the common action of secondary and primary teachers, based on mutual knowledge and mutual respect. Much was done by the recent regulations of the Board of Education requiring that all pupil teachers in elementary schools should spend at least two years as probationers in secondary schools: their new regulations (1907, Cd. 3444, Wyman & Sons) establishing a Bursary system are a further step in the same direction. The Board have also encouraged the secondary schools to provide for the half-time pupil teachers, who are actually teaching in the elementary schools, courses of instruction to continue their general education to the matriculation standard. In the South of England, and the Midlands even, this has been largely done; in the North the Education Committees and their officials have in many places preferred to retain the Pupil Teachers' Centre system, where the pupil teachers are taught in a separate institution for half the day or week, and teach the other half. The best system of division of time for the schools is that of teaching for a term when apprenticeship is begun, about sixteen, then returning to the schools for a year of study

and then teaching for two terms. This works well under the London County Council.

The question of scholarships for primary school children is dealt with in Chapter XIII.; it must, however, be stated here that there is a certain risk to an ordinary girls' high school in receiving all at once a *large* number of scholars from public elementary schools. The ideals and ways of secondary and primary schools have unfortunately been so different that mixture is not easy. For example, owing to the different size of the classes, the relation of the teacher to the child is not the same; in the primary school arithmetic, in the other English, is the most important study; one school has been obliged in the past to think of instruction and definite results; the other has been free to work on broader lines; above all, the ideal of discipline has been different. But things are improving; the new Code of 1904, with its fine Prefatory Memorandum laying down true principles for all education,[1] was the great step to reconciliation. Primary teachers are now free, freer than some secondary teachers. As years go on the relation will become much happier and easier. To have a *limited* number of scholars from public elementary schools in an ordinary high school is *per contra* a real advantage. These girls have a spirit of earnestness and hard work which is of the greatest value to the tone of a form; they have in some

[1] The purpose of the Public Elementary School is to form and strengthen the character and to develop the intelligence of the children entrusted to it, and to make the best use of the school years available, in assisting both girls and boys, according to their different needs, to fit themselves, practically as well as intellectually, for the work of life.

With this purpose in view it will be the aim of the school to train the children carefully in habits of observation and clear reasoning, so that they may gain an intelligent acquaintance with some of the facts and laws of nature; to arouse in them a living interest in the ideals and achievements of mankind, and to bring them to some familiarity with the literature and history of their own country; to give them some power over language as an instrument of thought and expression, and, while making them conscious of the limitations of their knowledge, to develop in them such a taste for good reading and thoughtful study as will enable them to increase that knowledge in after years by their own efforts.

cases a different experience of the world, which helps to widen the ideas of their teachers and comrades, and they are sometimes really brilliant pupils. It must be remembered that in the more democratic districts, especially in the North of England, there is not the same prejudice against the public elementary school as there is in more conservative areas in the South, and that many well-to-do families do as they would in America or Switzerland, send their children naturally to what they call, as in New England or the West, the "public school". As public elementary schools improve this will become more and more usual. There are some infant schools in the better-off neighbourhoods which are good enough for any child.

The relation of the secondary school to the University is a much easier and simpler question. Historically, in England the relation has always been very close, one of the merits of our system; it is typified by the relation of Eton to King's College, Cambridge, and of Winchester to New College, Oxford. The pioneer women followed this tradition, and worked hard simultaneously for the college education of women and the foundation of schools for girls.

This tradition has strengthened and grown with years; there is no more prominent and characteristic feature of the English High School for Girls than its very intimate relation with the women's colleges and the universities. In this it excels the corresponding schools of Switzerland, France, and even perhaps of America, not to say Germany, where the university education of women is now just beginning. By this time in England the high schools are staffed by college women, heads as well as assistants; the university examines and inspects the schools (see Chapter XII.); in many cases, university professors help in the government of the schools. It is most important for the future of English education that this happy traditions hould continue. We may adduce in this connection

the weighty testimony of Dr. Rein, speaking (in German) at an English University :—

> The State in various countries has feared lest the freedom of the university teaching should hinder the narrower aims of officialism. On this point he said that the danger of State control is that it may make the whole of civic life like a huge machine. The temper of the university was fundamentally opposed to bureaucracy, and hence the "Lehr-freiheit," which was the proud motto of the German universities, might find itself in conflict with the State system.
>
> But this conflict was really not necessary, because the State aimed at the control of life in practical affairs, whilst the idealist teaching of the university gave an aim and a goal to which the common organisation of daily life should aspire. The ideal and the practical must here go hand in hand, and neither could dispense with the other.

The somewhat elaborate and complicated explanations in the preceding pages, dull though they be, are, it is felt, necessary.[1] The organisation of education in England is one of very great complexity and difficulty, since it is a compromise between ideals to all appearance incompatible and irreconcilable. Such is indeed the character of our political system, our national organisation. We do not eliminate our minorities; they and the majority find a *modus vivendi* somehow or other for common citizenship. In our education we will not sacrifice character to knowledge, spiritual ideals to practical needs, science to humanities; nor will we reverse the process; we mean to have them all. We neither ignore social distinctions as America does, nor isolate social classes in different schools like Germany. We welcome their mingling and fellowship in the work of the State and the halls of the professor, and we adjust our conflicting systems by contempt for logic, implied understandings, and best of all, by mutual respect and toleration.

[1] See, for a foreign account of boys' education, *L'Education des classes moyennes et dirigeantes en Angleterre.* Max Leclerc. Paris, 1901.

CHAPTER III.

INTERNAL ORGANISATION.

HAVING considered the organisation of schools externally in reference to the community, we have now to deal with the internal organisation of a particular school, how it is articulated into divisions for the differing parts of its work, as the human body is provided with different organs, each discharging a special function. The unit of organisation in the ordinary type of English school is the Form, a group of twenty-five to thirty pupils approximately of the same age, ability, and standard of attainment, committed to the charge of a form mistress, though not taught exclusively by her, occupying in general a room of their own —the classroom—working together in most subjects, and remaining in that form for a year or session, usually from September to July. The words form and class are practically interchangeable in England; there is no idea of the pupil having entered in any particular year, though naturally new pupils may begin together in a form and go up the school together like an American "class". The number of forms necessary depends on the length of the school course, but there is, in general, a form for each year. If a school has pupils from nine to eighteen years of age, it should have at least ten forms, the highest form being the Sixth, that phrase so laden with association of dignity and weight to an English boy or girl. The German order is reversed, Oberprima being the highest form; the French traditional order is similar to it, the highest form but

one in the Lycée being *classe de première*. The English nomenclature has the advantage of beginning at the beginning, the Firsts being for the quite little ones, the Seconds for children of ten to eleven, the Thirds generally the forms where secondary education with two languages begins, so that the English table is rightly as follows :—

Age.	Name.
12, 13	Thirds—Lower and Upper.
13, 14, 15	Fourths—Lower, Upper, [and Middle].
15, 16	Lower Fifth.
17	Upper Fifth.
18	Sixth.

The number of Third and Fourth forms, and the names and the divisions of each, vary from school to school owing to the varying age of entering and leaving. At present, unfortunately, fourteen plus is the age at which the maximum number of pupils is found in English secondary schools, since many enter late and others leave early.[1] There are thus often several Fourth forms. [There are at present, *e.g.* three Lower Fourths and three Upper Fourths in the Manchester High School for Girls.] Schools with a four years' course, twelve to sixteen, must, if they have a Sixth at all, make it the form for sixteen-year-old pupils, and have one Fifth at fifteen years of age. Some schools with pupils up to nineteen have two Sixths, an upper and a lower, and only the upper has the special privileges of freedom and government. The matriculation examination can be taken at seventeen years of age; the Sixth form proper is generally specialising at work of a higher character, in preparation for an honours course of study at a university, and for college scholarships as a means to that end. The most important difference between one kind of secondary school and another is the relative number of pupils who remain till eighteen and nineteen

[1] In Sept., 1907, fifteen to sixteen is the age of the maximum number in the Manchester High School.

years of age, and the character and size of the Sixth depends on this. The high school proper is the one that has a really strong Sixth, with some pupils at least doing work beyond that of the ordinary matriculation. In a small high school such a form must needs be very small, but its influence and value is none the less for that.

If we take 300 as the normal number for a school, we shall have—dividing by 25, the normal number for a form—twelve forms. What these will be depends on the number of years of the school course. If, as in most girls' high schools, this runs from nine to eighteen years of age, ten of these forms will be taken for the successive years of school life, and there will be an extra Third and an extra Fourth for the larger number of pupils at thirteen and fourteen years of age. If, however, the course began later and were for six years, there would be two forms for each year, which would admit of much more careful classification, and, if desired, of bifurcation. This scheme assumes the existence of a separate preparatory school or department for younger pupils, where what is really primary education is given. If the school is small (say 150), and is to be organised in ten forms for ten years of school life, each form averages fifteen, which is extravagant in working. This is the greatest disadvantage of the small high school for girls. But if its course be only six years, the proper normal number of twenty-five in a form is possible, and economy is secured. There is, however, no possibility of bifurcation, which is another, but less serious disadvantage. With a four years' course (twelve to sixteen) a school of 100 is possible and economical.

The question is complicated in actual working by the varying age of entry into a girls' high school; as a matter of fact, pupils come in at all ages, though the tendency is for the greater number to come when they are over ten and under fourteen. This is one of the greatest difficulties

in the organisation of girls' secondary education, and it is not likely to pass quickly, except in schools which draw the majority of their pupils from elementary schools. These, of which the municipal secondary schools are examples, can fix an age limit and take their pupils only at (say) twelve years of age. If they are planned to follow the four years' course of the Board of Education, their organisation is absolutely simple; they can work with a minimum number of 80 to 100 pupils in four forms, the higher forms being smaller to allow for the number leaving early before the end of the course. Pupil teachers' centres also are easily organised; theirs is a two years' course, sixteen to eighteen years of age; all the pupils have passed a definite admission examination, and have another definite examination at the end.

But the problem of an ordinary girls' high school is very different. In practice it is difficult to fix even the minimum age of admission, as parents wish to send the younger children to school in the charge of their elder sisters. This, the natural family plan, has many advantages, and is probably responsible for the kindergarten and preparatory departments in so many of the high schools, either in the same or adjacent buildings, and for the admission of little boys under nine to the junior forms. With the boarding schools this feature does not occur, though they have their own problem in the admission of girls of fourteen, fifteen and even sixteen years of age taught at home by all sorts of teachers, or in very various kinds of schools, and sent on to them to finish. The day school also receives pupils from home and from various types of schools, but at an earlier age, from ten to fourteen. Many high schools charge a higher fee for pupils entering over thirteen or fourteen; ten is the earliest age at which a child can begin the responsibility of going any distance alone to school. Probably it, and not twelve, is the ideal

age to begin secondary education, a fact recognised in Germany (where the boy begins his secondary education when he is over nine years of age), in Switzerland, and in the new Board of Education regulations, which pay special grants on elementary school children from ten to twelve years of age, who have been transferred to a secondary school.

In the larger and more central higher secondary schools, giving an advanced type of education up to nineteen years of age, there is a tendency for pupils from other secondary schools to enter at fifteen to sixteen for a three years' course. This works very well; such pupils are properly prepared, often hold scholarships, and those from smaller schools profit by the stronger stimulus and larger fellowship of the great school. When there is a middle school and a high school connected and working together, as in the Frances Mary Buss Schools in London, the plan is seen at its best. It is specially valuable for the abler girls from poorer homes, whose parents could not afford high school fees, but can pay the middle school fees, and who themselves have powers that need the higher type of teaching. It is also useful for the ablest pupils from elementary schools, who may do better by passing through the middle school first, and so becoming used to the different social environment of the higher secondary school. This has been shown in London, where the middle school has been well organised and correlated with the high school. The freedom and elasticity of the English school system, which admits of pupils passing from one type of school to another, has undoubted advantages, though it makes the task of the school harder.

It must also be remembered that there is less definiteness of aim about girls' education, that parents change their minds more easily in accordance with circumstances. If times are bad the boys' education must be carried on, and the girls may take their chance and go without; or on the

other hand, better-class parents may feel there is a greater need for their girls to be trained to earn a living, and may send them to the day high school near at hand, rather than to an expensive foreign boarding school where accomplishments are taught. Good times mean, in an industrial population, that the effective demand for girls' secondary education penetrates to a lower social class, who in bad times would have to be satisfied with the free primary school, or would send their daughters immediately to work. The girls' secondary schools have to adapt their organisation to these varying demands, varying ages of entry, varying stages of previous education. They do this in two ways, by "sets" for mathematics and languages, and in larger schools by a special kind of bifurcation.

"Sets."

The "sets" are familiar in boys' schools; two or three forms, or a whole department or school, are put together and reclassified for mathematics, (say) on lines independent of the particular boy's standing in his form for classics or English; he may no longer have his form master, and may be working with other comrades, all the clever boys in algebra (say), doing much higher work than the others. In girls' schools Latin is more often a subject taken in "sets," and provision is made for beginning at various ages. It is not as a rule compulsory, and is often alternative with German or extra French and English. This provides for the different needs of various girls and the different ideas of parents. They may decide, for instance, late in her school life, that a girl should go to college, and she therefore may have to begin Latin even at fifteen. In a school which receives a fair proportion of pupils—10 to 20 per cent.—from elementary schools, there must be "sets" for French, to admit of the proper teach-

ing of such girls who have not learnt French in the primary school. On the other hand, schools which receive some older pupils from home teaching or old-fashioned private schools must have "sets" for mathematics, if they teach it to such pupils at all; in most cases indeed, provision for the speedy advance of the older girls in mathematics makes "sets" or parallel classes desirable, so that the clever girl can "go up," as we say, to a higher form for her algebra at the same time as her form mates take their ordinary algebra lesson. English subjects always, and science generally, are form subjects, and do not as a rule have "sets," though one has known science teachers who would like to reclassify for botany, as for mathematics, to give more advanced pupils a chance, and to send to a lower division the pupils who had begun late and know little. In some schools there are "sets" for other science subjects also, especially when the pupils work together in other subjects. The danger of the system of "sets" is of course that it may destroy the unity of the life of the form, and it should therefore be minimised as much as possible. Ideally only one subject should be taught in "sets," the classification into forms being so careful that the pupils can work together satisfactorily in other studies.

Note on "Sets" in the Manchester High School.

French is taught in "sets," two or three forms being together as follows:—

I. Two Third forms: three sets, one of beginners, one good set who have done good work in the junior school, one medium set.

II. Two Lower Fourth forms: two sets, poor and good.

III. Three Upper and Lower Fourth forms: four sets,

one set of beginners, three sets corresponding to the three forms.

IV. Two Lower Fifth forms: two sets, poor and good.

The Upper and Lower Sixth and the two Upper Fifths work as forms. By this time the girls have run together, or the feebler girls in French have generally left (at sixteen years of age).

Latin is taught in "sets" and alternates generally with German. The Upper Sixth and the Upper Third work as forms. There are two blocks of sets as well:—

I. All the Fourths, Upper and Lower: three sets, beginners, second year, third year.

II. All the Fifths and the Lower Sixth, including matriculation girls: four sets, beginners, second year, third year, fourth year (the subject is elective).

German has sets to correspond: it is also elective.

Mathematics is taught much more in forms than was the case some years ago; the system of A and B forms makes this possible. There are still some sets, and when taught in forms, the subject is placed at the same time in two or three forms, so as to admit of the clever girl "going up" for mathematics.

Bifurcation.

The principle of different courses of study for different pupils is fundamental in secondary education; it appears in the classical and modern sides in English Public Schools; in the system of courses and electives in American High Schools; in the German Gymnasium, Progymnasium, Oberrealschule, Realschule; in the French "Enseignement classique" and "Enseignement moderne" of the Lycées. It appears also in girls' schools offering various courses of study in the higher forms, as we shall see in the chapter on curriculum. But the bifurcation to be described

now is somewhat different; it is a bifurcation not according to studies, but according to the ability, previous education and health of the individual. In girls' schools as they are at present, there is a a certain proportion of pupils who are not capable, without injury, of a complete course of study, including mathematics, Latin and the harder sciences. If they are put into ordinary forms taking such a course, the diligent girls overwork in the effort to do what is really beyond them, become miserable, discouraged, and leave school early, or even break down altogether. Others drift along at the bottom of the class to the despair of the careful, conscientious teacher. If the forms are large, or the teacher is inexperienced or careless about detail, there may be a not inconsiderable number of such pupils escaping notice and wasting their time. The writer's experience of boys' schools is not sufficient to form an opinion as to whether there is such an element there. If there is, it is probably smaller than in a girls' school. Many girls are still badly prepared in the earlier stages of education, and have had little thorough teaching and training in methods of study; the question of health is more serious with them during the years of school life, and some are really delicate and cannot do much hard work. Some again are naturally dull, and have not been brightened up, as even a dull boy is, by contact with life outside the home circle.

The maternal instinct of care for the weak, inherent in women, has made the women organisers and teachers in girls' schools specially provide for these girls courses of study suited to their needs and powers. Such organisation is obviously much easier in a large school, and in many schools of 200 and upwards some provision to meet this need will generally be found under one name or another, especially in the Fourth forms, for reasons of age and growth. Frances Mary Buss, in organising the great

school which bears her name, made what may be called B forms, parallel with the A forms, in which a course of study was followed, equally thorough and sound, but better within the grasp of the feebler pupils. The A forms took the complete course, with Latin, physics and mathematics; the B forms did no Latin, but good arithmetic, and possibly elementary geometry, with science of an easier kind. The English and French were supposed to be at the same standard, but naturally the A forms did this work better. The system has been developed elsewhere, somewhat elaborately in the Manchester High School, where the local conditions make variety and flexibility of organisation specially needful.

Here the system has been termed by Professor Sadler "slow trains and express trains". This is an admirable description, emphasising the fact that both sections have the same direction, the same aim, running on parallel lines, the same thoroughness and care in material and *personnel*, permanent way and officials; the essential difference is in the rate of progress. Translated into school language this means that the A girl can learn more subjects and harder subjects during her school career. The B girl can get to the same terminus, and does, only she takes longer over it. The metaphor is, however, inapplicable in one very important particular; it is the older and more experienced driver and guard who must have charge of the *slow* train. The brilliant young college graduate can take an A form at once, and teach it well; it is easy to teach clever well-prepared girls who know how to work. For the B form peculiar qualities of mind and character are required, experience, sound method, sympathy, vocation. A head mistress must be on the look-out for teachers who have the gift; the difficulty and strain of their work should be recognised, and they should have occasional opportunities of teaching in A forms, if only as a rest, for it must be

understood that they have to supply much of the driving force in a B form, where as a rule there is not the same spirit of eager intellectual advance as with A forms.

Although the need for this special bifurcation in girls' schools is partly due to the present transition state of girls' education, the phenomenon is probably normal and will always exist. However complete a national system of education may be, there will always be at least three natural causes of difference between one pupil and another —ability, health, home environment. There will always be the A girl and the B girl, and it is much better when one can recognise the difference and fit the work to the pupil, than when one is forced to try and stretch or squeeze the pupil into a fixed scheme of work. Probably much remains to be discovered as to the best course of study, especially as to the value of handwork, for this type of pupil. It is also possible that there may be a reaction in girls' education; Latin and harder mathematics may come to be the subjects for only an intellectual *élite* among girls, as Greek and the calculus are at present. If this be so (and it may happen), the B course of study with its good English and its modern languages, art and handwork, and its minimum of mathematics and science will be the normal course of study for the majority of girls.

As things are, objection is sometimes taken to a separate organisation for slower pupils on two grounds: First, it is said that they get on even more slowly by themselves, without the stimulus of the brilliant fellow-pupils. This may be so, but it can be avoided by skill on the part of the teacher; there is the compensating advantage that the slow pupil is not discouraged by having work which is too hard for her. Second, it is said that the B forms must feel they are inferior to the A forms, and that this is a great discouragement to them. Here again such an evil is possible, but it also can be avoided, especially by giving B

girls subjects proper to themselves which A girls do not learn, or by having a curriculum of a somewhat different type. The forms are different, it is true, but there can be no real inferiority in school except that of either character or age, though there are of course differences of capacity, as of wealth, between one girl and another. B forms are generally older than the corresponding A forms. It rests with the mistresses of the B forms and with the forms themselves to show that in status, work and tone there is no inferiority; and this they do, as experience proves. Provision must also be made for "shunting" at the end of the school session. There will be "slip" coaches that the express train will drop, girls who for reasons of health (say) may pass from an A to a B form, and conversely, there may be girls in a B form who go on so fast that it is juster to them to transfer them to the A side. Cases have been known where nearly a whole form has been transferred bodily to the A side.

Specialisation.

This problem must be more fully treated when we consider curriculum; but as the age at which specialisation begins materially influences internal organisation, it must be touched upon here. There is a general agreement that fifteen or sixteen is the earliest age, but some schools allow no specialisation till the matriculation standard at least has been reached. In the middle school girls leave at fifteen or sixteen, and ideally they should continue a purely general education to that age. In practice it is found that a definite preparation for bread winning must begin. Some such schools in London have to prepare for the Civil Service examinations; many others are preparing for the Pupil Teachers' Entrance Examination, and both objects need some degree of specialisation. The curriculum of a particular school is often specialised to

meet the needs of that school; particular languages are chosen—French and Latin, say—and German is not taught at all. It is the same with particular branches of science. English, including history and literature, and mathematics are retained, one might say universally, till the matriculation or even higher. The choice of the other three groups of subjects to be studied itself affords a certain degree of specialisation. French, the traditional language for girls, is almost universally retained, except where it gives place to Greek. Some schools make Latin compulsory for matriculation; some make science compulsory. On the other hand, some schools at fifteen or sixteen allow considerable specialisation in languages (all science being dropped), or in science only, the one language (French or German or Latin) being retained. If university scholarships are to be won at eighteen to nineteen years of age, there must be specialisation for three years before, especially in classics and mathematics. Fortunately the colleges demand languages from history students, and in some cases from science students; these latter must also take some mathematics. The groups of the Joint Board Higher Certificate Examination, and of the Cambridge and the Oxford Higher Local Examinations also admit of some specialisation (see their regulations). The lists show that English and history, Latin and modern languages and mathematics are the subjects generally taken by girls' schools, with some science. Recently geography has received some encouragement through the Board of Education regulations requiring it up to the matriculation standard for future primary teachers. Schools vary so much that it is difficult to make general statements.

There is a distinct demand on the part of wealthier parents for specialisation in music, art and languages at fifteen or sixteen. To this the school takes care to add good English and history; to insist on much mathematics,

science and Latin would mean that the girl would leave to go to classes at some musical college or similar institution. The need is a real one and should be recognised and met, as it is in many good boarding schools, by an organised course of study alongside of the course preparing for college. Such a course is provided in Swiss schools, and is called the Fortbildungs Classen, being found side by side with Handels Classen (Commercial Department) and Seminar Classen (Preparation for Teaching), at the top of the secondary schools, for girls of sixteen to eighteen years of age. The subject will be treated in greater detail in Chapters VII. and XII.

Preparatory Departments.

We have touched on the question of the Junior or Preparatory Department already (*supra*, p. 39). Such a section of the school, is as we have seen, in general a necessity, both for family and educational reasons. The younger ones come with their big older sister, and for this reason the department is in the same building or close by. The separate preparatory school, as for boys, is not needed. It is also advantageous to the older girls to have younger children in the school; it helps to develop their womanly instincts, and to check that selfish absorption in her own concerns which is one of the failings of the modern schoolgirl. There is, however, an increased liability to the spread of such infectious illnesses as measles if there are quite young children in the school; it is therefore usual to have them in a separate part of the building. Kindergarten departments have their own rooms, including dressing-rooms, etc., and their own set of teachers, the senior mistress being specially responsible, and often seeing parents and nurses on matters of health, dress, etc.

On educational grounds the department is found neces-

sary in order that the children may be prepared suitably for regular secondary education. Some authorities consider that this special preparation should begin before ten years of age, French or Latin being begun early. In any case the particular school has its own views as to the stratification of subjects throughout the years of school life, and may wish to have the curriculum planned accordingly. If all the pupils could enter at ten, preparatory departments would not be necessary on educational grounds, though for convenience a department for young children from five to nine, including boys, may well form part of the school. A view has prevailed of recent years that twelve was the age at which the preparatory department should stop, and regular secondary education begin. This meets the needs of public elementary schools, but it is probably not the whole truth. If ten is the proper age, and if, as we have seen, fifteen to sixteen is another critical point, we should have an ideal internal organisation in three groups somewhat as follows :—

Junior School or Preparatory and Kindergarten, five to nine years of age; primary education; much handwork and physical training, reading and writing, nature study, geography, elementary arithmetic, etc., no foreign language.

Lower Secondary, ten to fifteen. Six years of general secondary education, including generally two foreign languages, begun, one at ten, one at twelve or thirteen; some science throughout, with of course English, geography, history, some mathematics, drawing and sewing, etc.

Higher Secondary, sixteen to nineteen. English and one language compulsory, and, in general, mathematics. Specialisation allowed with elective courses of study, or special departments, should the school be large. One of these must be preparation for college, another technical (see Chapter XIII.), another for general culture, including art and music.

Hours and Terms.

English schools generally work on the term system, there being three terms in a year: September to Christmas, the Autumn or Michaelmas term; January to April, the Lent or Easter term; May to July, the Summer term. The session is now in most schools from September to July, when the long vacation comes; some schools still finish their year at Christmas, however, and some authorities prefer public outside examinations in December or January. July is hot and tiring, but as it is the end of the session it is the most convenient time for examinations on the whole; the best plan is to have the important examination in June or early July before the heat of summer, and to rearrange the time-table somewhat for examinees in July, allowing them an easier time with greater opportunity for open-air games. Holidays are given between each term, unless the date of Easter divides the year awkwardly, when some schools give the spring holiday at Eastertide. There is a tendency to shorten the old-fashioned long Christmas holiday, which is really not required for health; on the other hand, it has been proved, both by experience and formal experiment, that a spring holiday is required by school children, human vitality being at its lowest after the trial of winter. This is also the period for the most serious of school epidemics, measles and whooping cough. The total length of holidays varies; in the ordinary high school it amounts during the year to thirteen weeks, leaving a school session of thirty-nine weeks. Municipal secondary schools are characterised by having much shorter holidays, for three reasons: they have been influenced by the elementary school tradition; the pupils come, it is said, from homes where long holidays would be unwelcome; and the local authorities, being largely composed of business men accustomed to short holidays, often

consider the traditional longer holidays of the grammar and high schools a waste of time and a mere indulgence to the teachers. This difference, one of the most marked between the two types of secondary schools, tends at present to prevent certain teachers, both men and women, from taking posts under local authorities, they value so much the opportunities for study and rest which the long vacation gives. We shall return to this question in the next chapter. As to what length of holiday is necessary for the pupils, it may be noted that in America and Scotland the summer vacation is longer than in England and the others much shorter, and that in France, Germany and Switzerland the session of forty weeks, somewhat more or somewhat less, obtains. As a matter of fact, the question of amount of work done does not depend only on the length of the school session, whether annual or hebdomadal; it depends on the intensity with which the work is done. As in the most progressive and best organised industrial establishments, the eight hours' day, with its intenser application and more careful precautions against waste, tends to prevail, especially where the labour is of a more intelligent and less mechanical type, so in girls' high schools has the value been recognised of thorough and intense work during short periods; a view which the most modern medical opinion is now beginning to advocate at hygiene conferences and elsewhere.

The weekly school hours are in general shorter than in boys' schools, there being in the typical schools no compulsory afternoon session. The morning session is generally four hours, nine to one, or nine-fifteen to one-thirty; of this at least fifteen minutes are given daily to a period of relaxation and play, when a light luncheon of milk and biscuits is taken, somewhere in the middle of the morning; Saturday is a whole holiday, so that the teaching hours in the week do not amount to more than eighteen and three-

quarter hours, and are often less, the lessons being forty or forty-five minutes in duration. The afternoons are left free for either home life, many mothers preferring their girls to come home at once and be with them when school is over; for organised games and recreative subjects like drawing; or for the preparation of home lessons at school. The system was gradually evolved, both at Cheltenham, under Miss Beale, and in the Frances Mary Buss School, to meet the needs of the situation, to offer the advantages of a solid education without taking girls too much away from their homes. It has the great advantage of allowing day pupils to return before dark, and of making possible special consideration for health. In the middle schools charging a lower fee, it has been felt desirable to retain the old-fashioned afternoon session, sometimes giving part of the time to home work, as it was supposed the mothers would be occupied during the day, and the girls would not have facilities for preparation and games at home. On the other hand, some of the wealthier boarding schools or smaller schools in a residential area, which make games compulsory in the middle of the day, have a late compulsory afternoon session, which includes homework. In boarding schools this, even as late as from four to seven P.M., is probably a very good plan, and corresponds with the usual work hours in womens' colleges.

Of late there has been an attack on the long morning session on two grounds: first, that it is too great a strain both on girls and teachers, and second, that the optional afternoon work, music, sewing, drawing, etc., has been extended in such a way as to fill up a girl's whole time, the amount of homework set being also excessive. This has happened in some cases, doubtless, owing to the pressure of competitive examinations and the desire of parents to have their girls learn as many subjects as possible; but it is a mere abuse of the system, which a careful and

strong head mistress can easily stop, and which in many high schools is not found. The first objection is one of principle, based on theoretical grounds, and coming largely from men who have lived as boys under the other system; the best answer to it is given by the evidence of those who have had practical experience both as girls and teachers—the members of the Association of Head Mistresses and of Assistant Mistresses. They strongly support the existing system (see Appendix D.).

It may seem perhaps to some that all the details of this and the previous chapters, classification, hours and sessions, bifurcation and the rest, are but lifeless forms, dull, mechanical, sterile, that true education has but little to do with such devices. Such a criticism has its truth, if only as a warning to the organiser. Without the real spirit of the teacher all this is indeed as sounding brass or a tinkling cymbal. Carlyle, however, has taught us that forms which grow naturally are right; and all the formal types of organisation described have been naturally evolved as solutions to the practical problem of how to teach the individual girl with the maximum of success, the minimum of waste. We in England are learning of late, though slowly and painfully enough, how necessary organisation is to an army, though no tables of squadrons and transport will ever win a battle. But the battle is won by the soldiers whose food and ammunition, supports and reserves, are in the right place at the right time. The crown of achievement is won only by the teacher whose class is properly graded, suitably housed, adequately equipped, in such a way that the living influence of mind upon mind, character upon character—the real matter of education—may do its work unhindered and unrestrained, may effect the pupil not only for a few fugitive minutes, but to a lasting end, may perform its all-important function with the highest degree of permanence and efficiency.

CHAPTER IV.

THE TEACHER.

IT might be thought that having considered the aim and the organisation, both external and internal, of a school, the next duty would be to describe the external body of the school, its building; but such a procedure would be philosophically and practically wrong. It is not bricks and mortar, pitch-pine and blackboards that make a school, not even sculptured marble, stained glass, and Californian redwood, but human beings, teachers. They are the soul of the school, its animating principle, its main sources of energy and power—"for soul is form, and doth the body make".

Unfortunately, when public authorities deal with education, they too often begin with the building, and even spend a disproportionate amount on it. Some of the magnificent American equipment is dearly bought at the price of inferior teachers. It is better and truer to begin a school with the teachers, at least at all events with the head, and let it grow gradually, even in inferior temporary premises, and let it shape its material embodiment to suit its character and needs.

If the view taken in earlier chapters be correct, it is by the mutual action and reaction of the teacher and pupil that the real work of a school is achieved; and further, the teacher means in English schools something more than the giver of lessons, the craftsman, however skilled, the professor, however learned. We mean a personality, a

man or woman exercising influence over the impressionable mind and character of the growing organism, the pupil, and we have evolved the form system to provide the environment in which such an influence can best act. With the form teacher at work in her form room with her own girls, we therefore touch the very pulse of the machine; it is here that the most part of what the school seeks to do is done. Such a form ought to be in number about twenty-five; twenty is good, but below twenty there is hardly enough variety with older pupils to bring about a form consciousness; over thirty is for most people too many; thirty-five is probably the limit for even the best and most forcible teacher to know her girls and influence them. Though the standard of a school may be twenty-five to a form, the actual proportion of pupils to a teacher may often be smaller, fifteen or even less; some teachers are not suited to be form mistresses, either from inexperience, personality, age, or the nature of their subject. Science mistresses, who have a laboratory to care for, can rarely have a form, especially as they teach all up and down the school, a few lessons in each class. Teachers of drawing, gymnastics, singing, sewing and some other subjects, hardly ever have forms, even if they are not visiting teachers, though sometimes a form mistress can take one or more of these subjects with her form. In the ideal school a form mistress would have more free time than the others, and would have help from a junior or less experienced mistress with the details of registers, marks, class management, etc. When this is practically impossible, monitors elected in each form by the girls can do much to help the form mistress through this mass of necessary routine, while they themselves profit by the experience.

In many schools visiting teachers are inevitable, but their number should be minimised for two reasons;

first, they are more costly in proportion, and secondly, they cannot as a rule take so much interest in the school and the girls, or share in its social life. There is a plan which works well in some places, where a staff teacher, paid by a terminal salary, comes for part of the week, and, it may be, does research or other literary work, or rests the other part. Such a teacher can and does share in the social life, since she is not so pressed as the full-time mistress; she is very stimulating intellectually to older girls, and even to her colleagues, since she brings a breath from wider horizons into the narrow world of school.

On the qualifications of teachers much has been written; the subject may be treated from the formal external point of view, as by a registration council, though even here unanimity is not secured. The university degree, or (magic words (!)) its equivalent, is now generally required in good secondary schools. Some head mistresses require training as well. The Board of Education states that in schools aided by its grants a certain proportion of the teachers must hold certificates of professional capacity. It is important to ascertain at what college or university an applicant has studied, and at what school she was educated; these are often much more important than the actual degree. Mistresses of technical subjects have their own diplomas; mistresses of junior forms need special qualifications and training, towards the organisation of which steps are at present being taken by the Head Mistresses' Association, the University of Manchester, the National Froebel Union, and other bodies.

The qualifications which cannot so easily be formulated or tested, but which are personal to the woman, are far more vital. We may borrow as a suggestion the phrase of Almond of Loretto, "character, physique, intelligence, manners and information," the objects of education in his

opinion, as examples of these personal gifts. J. Lewis Paton, High Master of the Manchester Grammar School, formulates seven: a love for children, strength and sincerity of character, inexhaustible patience, simplicity of thought, method and orderliness, energy, physical and mental, and a happy temperament. These seven might be included under one, the pastoral gift, the power of managing and influencing girls for good; this is the one thing needful. Without it, true success is impossible. Fortunately many women possess it by nature; and thus it is that teaching is the woman's profession.

This being so, we may hope that a sufficient number of able and vigorous women will always be found ready to take up the work. They must be properly paid, well treated, and have reasonable security of tenure; otherwise they cannot continue to do efficient work.

Professor Sadler in his Liverpool Report states (p. 151) that £110 should be the minimum initial salary for a fully qualified mistress, rising by annual increments to a maximum of (say) £200. There should also be some special posts with a salary of £250. He also adds, "that in all but very exceptional cases, a woman ought to give up her work as a teacher in a school when she reaches the age of fifty-five".

The following official statement may also be quoted:—

Resolutions of the Head Mistresses' Conference, Winchester, 1905.

Assistant Mistresses.

(*a*) That the minimum initial salary for a fully qualified non-resident mistress giving her whole time should be not less than £105 to £120, rising to £150.

(*b*) That provision should be made in every secondary school for salaries on a higher scale, between £180 and £200, and occasionally rising to £300.

Head Mistresses.

(*a*) That no non-resident head mistress should receive from the time of her appointment less then a salary of £300.

(*b*) That the general range of salaries should be between £350 and £700; but, that in the interests of education, for the sake of the encouragement which is thereby given to all teachers, and the gain in the attractiveness of the teaching profession, there should be, as at present, some prizes of substantially higher value.

As to tenure, reference should be made to Appendix C., where are set forth the conditions considered satisfactory by the profession itself.

As far as conditions of service go, the points of most importance are two: Freedom from excessive physical and nervous strain, and the maintenance of intellectual interests and freshness. Professor Sadler says in the Huddersfield Report (p. 55): "Each man should really love his subject, because a boy 'catches' a love for study just as he catches the measles, *i.e.* from somebody else who has it himself. Intellectual interests are largely a matter of infection. A dull man cannot kindle them."

The holidays are of course the main agents in securing these conditions; many of our best women teachers, especially in towns, would be quite unable to do work of such excellence as they achieve if they did not have good holidays. Much can be done in daily routine to save teachers, without financial waste or injury to the pupils. We may desiderate the following: a comfortable common room, with an ample supply of couches for reclining, and a good fire most of the year; provision for proper meals on the premises and freedom to go out of the building for dinner; the reduction to a minimum of formal supervision and unnecessary written work or corrections; the use of cheaper labour to do the inferior kind of work, like the manifolding of papers, the filing of reports, and the addition of marks;

above all careful organisation, and sympathy on the part of the authorities. It should be frankly recognised that women cannot safely do as *much* work as men, a fact which is some justification for paying them at a lower rate, and that they need more allowance in the matter of absence due to illness. This implies that the staff of a girls' school should be relatively larger than that of a boys'.

Women tend also to overwork themselves, and this makes it the more difficult to secure that they shall preserve their freshness and their intellectual interests, lest these be "swamped by numbers, and dulled by hack work and routine". Mistresses ought to be able to enter into local conditions and needs, and have time and money for study. The American institution of the "Sabbatical Year" is advocated for this reason. In England, a leave of absence for a term, with salary, would probably be better; in a year one loses touch with school and the girls. The value of women teachers having interests, especially public and intellectual interests, outside the school, is considerable, and needs emphasising, since women teachers tend to become narrow and prejudiced. The whole question of the qualifications of men and women teachers is broadly stated by Professor Butcher in his Presidential Address to the Teachers' Guild:—

> Next the country must make up its mind what kind of teachers it required. Whatever kind it was prepared to pay for, that kind and quality it would get. As to what the country *needed* for its teachers there was no doubt. It needed not the leavings of other professions, but men and women trained to their difficult task, enlightened by knowledge, inspired by enthusiasm, endowed with that sympathy and sincerity which go straight to the heart of the young; teachers who never ceased to be learners, who knew that stagnation was death, who did not give a daily dole of fragments of information, old and cold; but who could speak out of a full mind and say what they had to say in different ways, and not in a few set phrases and

formulas; who kept their own intelligence alert and unjaded, and so kept alive the interest of their pupils; so that when the pupil passed from their hands he carried with him the inward desire to learn and study for himself, and in passing out of the schoolroom felt that he was passing into the school of life—not ending his education but beginning it. If they wished to turn out that kind of scholar, they must secure the corresponding teacher; and it was not right or reasonable to expect that these qualities of head or heart could be obtained for the wretched pittance which was sometimes offered for them. The teacher they needed must have some leisure, opportunities for refreshing and renewing the mind. He must, moreover, be able to live the life of a man and not of a celibate; he must have freedom from sordid care, some margin of comfort beyond the bare needs of livelihood; he must not, as old age came on, feel that the prospect was one of deepening gloom and penury; above all he must be sustained by the sense that his profession had in the eyes of the community at large a dignity in some degree commensurate with its intrinsic value and national importance.

We must now consider some important points concerning the organisation of the teachers' work in school. The first is the old controversy between the form teacher and the subject teacher. Is the form mistress to take all subjects except certain special ones, or are there to be separate teachers for each subject, who go from one form to another? In other words, is the subject to be considered the most important matter, or the pupil? Put thus, the question in England can be answered in one way only; we care about the character of the pupil, and the subject, the intellectual standard reached, is a secondary consideration. But there can be, there is in most good schools, between the two systems a compromise, that most English of expedients, which we think secures the advantages of both. We preserve the form system, but there is a certain change of teachers for different subjects. Every mistress has at least two subjects she can teach well, *e.g.* classics, and her second subject, *e.g.* English. These, and probably others, she can take with her form.

If we imagine the form organisation as horizontal, like layers of floors in a building, we may call the subject organisation vertical, going from top to bottom like a staircase or lift. This subject organisation appears absolutely necessary for efficiency and unity, especially if no external examination is taken until the end of the pupil's school career. Each important subject should be in the charge of one teacher, the head taking her own subject or set of subjects; all the teachers of each subject should meet and organise their work and agree to proceed along much the same lines. This is generally done for science, mathematics and languages. English subjects can be treated with greater freedom, and individual idiosyncrasies allowed a fairly free field. Unity can be secured by a carefully formulated curriculum on Herbartian lines, the history, geography, literature, etc., being connected—a point to be touched upon later. The head mistress should periodically examine the whole school in her subject with the assistance of the other teachers, if the school is large, and the head of each department should do the same. The results can be discussed in the departmental meetings, and records of them should be kept.

This system means labour, but it is labour well bestowed. One among the many merits of this plan of vertical subject organisation is that it gives greater responsibility and power of initiative to assistants, and leads to greater attention to methods and to other teachers' ways of work.

The difficulty between form and subject teacher is met in another way in some boys' schools, where there is a great variety and freedom of curriculum, and where every boy may have a separate time-table. It is that of a consulting master or tutor, to whom a particular boy is attached throughout his school career, and who is generally responsible for his progress. This system is rarely met with in a girls' school, and it is open to some serious

objections. The tutor may teach the pupil but seldom, and have little opportunity of influence or knowledge of character out of lesson time; the tutor may be uncongenial to the individual pupil, and yet a change may be invidious; and as the pupils of a tutor are scattered about all over the school, any common life must be arranged for apart from the ordinary school organisation. In a boarding school the house master or mistress is clearly a tutor of this kind, but the circumstances of the boarding-house life make such opportunities natural and valuable. Indeed a house mistress will know sides of a girl's character that her form mistress never sees. Practically, in an ordinary high school, the form mistress may feel that the boarders do not really belong to her as the other girls do. They look to their house mistress, and the complicated relationship may need careful adjustment.

When an Englishwoman studies Swiss or French secondary schools, nothing is more surprising to her than the absence of a form mistress. The teacher, the professor, gives the lesson, often an admirable lesson, and departs. As an alternative the Government Report on French education suggests the plan of a *directeur d'études*, a consulting master, to take the place in some respects of the form teacher.

In England one sometimes sees a bad type of form organisation; the form is but a registration unit, it has no life of its own; teachers come into the room and give lessons, or the form marches out to the laboratory or studio, but no one is really responsible for it. The form teacher keeps the attendance and such like, but her duty is with her own lessons, and the girls in her form are no more to her than any others. This plan may mean excellent instruction, but to those who know of a more living relationship it seems poor and dull.

Let us return to the normal case, of the form of twenty-

five girls in their own room with their own form mistress. She is responsible for them, she more than any one else in the school; no detail is too small, no question too serious for her help and attention; she is in daily relation with them, sees them all first thing in the morning to take their attendance, teaches them some part, it may be a large part, of the day, supervises them more or less out of lessons, watches their appearance and manners, notes any special conditions of health (*e.g.* wet garments, cough, restlessness), and may on occasion give special and individual guidance to one or other puzzled, naughty or unhappy child. The form itself has its own character and life; it is proud of the successes of its members, jealous of its own reputation; the girls are trained to look after one another, especially in the case of the new, the delicate and the careless, who need the assistance, consideration and control of their fellows. The very form room with its pictures, flowers and trophies of success, bears witness to the common life and sympathy of its members. Now all this common spirit must be the work of the form mistress, though she is aided, of course, in the case of most girls, by the habit of the school; it is for her to create and maintain the tone of her form. This, like all good things in education, takes time; at least half a term (six weeks) is required for a new mistress and a form to get to know one another at all; in the second term they will be pulling together efficiently, if they are ever to do so. The third term is needed to crown the work.

It follows then that a mistress must have a form at least a year; in practice it is found that a two-year period is better, if the mistress and the form are in harmony; they begin the second year knowing, and more or less liking, one another; the mistress has discovered the weak places in her team, and has learnt how to manage the difficult girls; the form spirit is strengthened by common

experiences of joys and victories; and the course of studies goes on evenly for six terms.

It may then be said, "Why not carry this principle further, and go on for a third year, or even all up the school, if a mistress is competent to teach varying ages, and all parts of a subject?" The formative influence of the teacher then becomes very strong, and her individuality is stamped on her class for always. If this effect be our aim, then let us keep a set with the same form mistress throughout their school career.

But the very statement of the result provokes the conclusive rejoinder, "We do not want one influence, one individuality stamped on our girls; they must develop their own characters". School, like life, brings us under various influences, and it is the part of a wise being to take from each what it needs for the building up of its own nature. No teacher is perfect and complete; each has some merits, some weaknesses, some failings. The girl, let us hope, will learn what is true and good in the work of each of her form mistresses, and by a change from one to another as time goes on, will supplement what has been already begun, and will grow and ripen in her own character, the more because she has been under more than one powerful influence.[1]

So much for the year's organisation; we must consider that of the week and the day. How much time should a form mistress spend teaching her own form? The answer varies according to age; junior forms, under twelve, are better with their form mistresses for most of their time;

[1] "When all we have said or done is forgotten, when our academic successes, our cleverest lessons, our brilliant achievements in administration, in school expansion, or, it may be in sport or in literature—all these have become a prey to dumb forgetfulness, this influence will survive. 'What we were like' will be remembered. . . . Not therefore what we say, or even so much what we do, but as what we are, is the thing that endures—the ultimate lesson, good, bad, or indifferent, which each one of us teaches."—J. Lewis Paton.

but they should not have her all day, both for her sake and theirs.

A set of ten-year-olds, *e.g.*, should have their English, arithmetic, and perhaps a history or nature lesson with their form mistress on a given day; they should also have some one else, for a French lesson, say, and experience another change by a period in the gymnasium or studio with the specialist mistress there. Even the youngest class in the Kindergarten should have at least one or two lessons a day with another mistress; to teach one set all day and every day adds much to the inevitable fatigue of teaching, and for the children also, the lessened strain of attention involved in a change of teacher is a real advantage. Up to thirteen years of age, the main body of the work should, however, be done by the form mistress, and as the standard of intellectual attainment is not high at this age, one teacher may very well be competent to do this. It is also important that subjects should not be isolated, but should be taught in relation to one another. The younger the pupil the more important this correlation; it may even be desirable sometimes to let one lesson melt into another, and to vary the rigid lines of the time table, so that, for example, a lesson may be so mingled of nature study, drawing, and the use of the mother-tongue in speech and writing, that one can hardly say which it is. In like manner, history, geography and literature melt into one another, even as high as a fourth form.

In the thirds, at thirteen years of age, some important parts of the work must go to other than the form mistress. If she is literary, as is an honours graduate in languages, she may take French, Latin (or German), English grammar and literature, and one other important group with her form, but the science some one else must do, and probably either the geography or mathematics. A mathematical mistress, on the other hand, will take the arithmetic and

elementary geometry, geography, physics, and either elementary Latin (say) or some English subject, leaving the French and history perhaps to another mistress. If there be twenty-five lessons a week, the form mistress at this stage ought to give at least half, twelve or thirteen (*e.g.* four French, four Latin, two English, two other subjects; or five arithmetic and mathematics, two physics, four Latin and two geography). This is enough to give a mistress a grasp of her form. With a weak third, however, on the B side, a greater proportion, fifteen periods at least out of twenty-five, is essential for real influence.

In the fourths, two lessons a day are enough for the form mistress, that is ten per week; but here again the more a mistress can be in touch with her form the better. If she can know them in three different groups, *e.g.*, mathematics, science and a literary subject, her hold is the greater and the more effective. In the upper forms a mistress can hardly be with her own girls much more than once a day, say six to seven periods a week at most. In a matriculation form, an upper fifth or lower sixth, a classical teacher may take five periods of Latin and two periods of literature and composition. In the case of older girls, there is more intercourse outside lessons between the teacher and the form, and this makes up for the diminished opportunities in class.

If the form mistress is to be responsible for the character training of her girls, she must be able to use some of the lessons for that end. In a very important sense all lessons are such a means; thoroughness, accuracy, steadfastness, truth are taught indirectly in every good lesson, and even the driest mathematics can be made the vehicle of moral influence. But it is found in practice that mistresses wish to have at least one literary subject with their own form so as to have opportunity and occasion of dealing with those problems of life, morals, character, and ideals on

which even the most thoughtless think now and then, and on which the opinions of an older and wiser woman must be of great value to her girls.

The Scripture or divinity lesson is the most natural place for such teaching; the traditional rule in the boys' schools that the form master should take this subject is followed in many girls' schools, and is eagerly adopted, when the chance is given them, by many form mistresses, who would feel the best lesson of the week was lost if they could not take Scripture with their own form. Some mistresses, however, do not wish to take the subject; they often find a literature, or history, or even an arithmetic lesson gives them the opportunity they need. In some schools the head mistress makes a point of taking all the Scripture teaching, just because this is a lesson where so much is done for the training of character. When the pressure of the time-table is not great, a period at the end of the week is sometimes left for the form mistress to fill in as she wishes, with, it may be, a form debate, a lesson on a subject of common interest, or a special talk on some moral question that has arisen naturally out of the week's happenings. Professional opinion in high schools for girls would probably support Mr. Paton and Professor Findlay in disapproving of direct formal moral instruction. A good form mistress is at the work of moral training all her time, explicitly or implicitly, from the routine of seeing that a careless girl has her locker tidy and her name on all her things, through the insistence on neatness of appearance and dress, orderly home-work, and good manners in and out of class, up to the weightier matters of judgment and the law; in which from time to time the influence, the moral force and sympathy of a form mistress make all the difference to the girl between moral life and death. Only those who have had the experience know how much this means; and they do not know how it is done. They

know that as girls the influence of a teacher, exercised often unconsciously, made them care to work for the best things; they see in later life a colleague's influence making a girl a new creature, repressing the evil in her nature and bringing out the good. It is not a question of sentiment or phraseology, fine talk or gushing emotion; it is plain, hard fact, shown in the details of ordinary work, and ordinary behaviour; it comes as a product of daily relations, term after term, of thought and time and devotion on the part of the teacher, studying each girl, and unselfishly seizing each opportunity, as the daily routine brings the chance of help.

It will be found in any given school that there are certain specially difficult places for which a particular mistress is peculiarly fitted. One of these is the third form in which some pupils are placed at twelve and thirteen. Another is the lower fourth, the backward, delicate, too often idle pupils of fourteen and fifteen, one of the most difficult posts in the school; another of very great importance, more important than the higher forms, is that where occurs a set of bright, vigorous, rapidly growing girls of fifteen, whose energies and abilities have to be turned to the higher intellectual and moral aims.

It is the business of the head mistress to dispose all the members of the staff, year by year, where they are most wanted; this is the tactics of her field. It is for her to decide whether a form is to go on a second year with the same mistress; whether Miss A. should not be tried in another part of the school; whether Miss B., who has had a hard time with difficult, backward girls for some years, can be spared to an easy form or even to have no form at all for a year. The question of the particular station for a teacher depends not only on which subjects she can best teach; it is far more important to consider what kind of influence she has. At certain ages, and with certain girls,

a firmer, more formal discipline and control is needed ; with others, motherly sympathy and care are the first consideration ; intellectual stimulus and inspiration may be the one thing needful at another stage with another form.

To the work of the form mistress may well be applied the words uttered by Mr. Haldane, Secretary for War, in a recent address on the devolution of responsibility :—

> That conception of subordinate leadership is, to my mind, a very vital one in our higher educational system. . . . In the devolution of responsibility lies the key to good administration. The more I learn of it, the more I am convinced that the good administrator is the one who knows how to pick his men, and having picked them, to assign functions to each, and then to put upon them the responsibility and expect of them the fulfilment of the duty of discharging these functions without interference.

CHAPTER V.

BUILDING AND EQUIPMENT.

WE have endeavoured to show that the teacher, not the building, is the most important matter in a school; we must now emphasise the value and importance of the material body in which the school lives, the building and its adjuncts. Thring's phrase[1] "the almighty wall" is becoming classic as an expression of this; the wall is all-powerful for good, because it prevents things going wrong. It is all-powerful too by its indirect influence of beauty and dignity, as well as by its direct usefulness. Some of us will estimate one or other of these ends more highly. We shall prefer to spend money on floor space, wide corridors, spacious cloakrooms, to have staircases, and studios, and halls, exactly where they ought to be for practical purposes, and be content with the severest simplicity of architecture; we shall have plain bricks, iron girders, no decorative accessories, floor above floor as sternly restricted to its work as in a factory or a warehouse. We shall think all this austerity welcome if the business of teaching and discipline goes the better for the plan. On the other hand, we may think that beauty is so important an educational influence that we shall reserve some of our resources to secure architectural dignity, even if the school is a little crowded in the dressing-rooms, and the straitness of the space for free movement forces the

[1] "One more word. Whatever men may say or think, *the almighty wall is, after all, the supreme and final arbiter of schools.*"

observance of minute rules in daily business. The ideal would of course be to have both advantages; some wealthy schools do, like the City of London School for Boys on the Embankment. Most girls' schools must sacrifice one to the other, or seek a compromise. Probably the best way to do this is to have the assembly hall as beautiful and stately as means will allow; it is the centre of the school's corporate life. A fine example is seen in the Cloth-workers' Hall of the North London Collegiate School, with its memorial windows and its great organ. The rest of the building may be very plain, if resources are limited, so long as there is plenty of room, air, and light. Handsome entrances are impressive, but of little educational use. It might be thought that special efforts should be made to have a girls' school beautiful, but there are two possible opinions even here. Well-to-do girls will have much in their homes and their out-of-school life to train their æsthetic taste; they can do without a beautiful building. It is in the poorer quarters and in the schools for girls who see little beauty, dignity, and good taste in their homes that the beautiful schools are needed. A school for girls whose fees are £4 to £6 ought to be—though it rarely is—more beautiful than one for girls whose parents can pay £15 to £20.

Let us turn from this difficult point of theory to practical details. For building, these will be found set out in the *Building Regulations for Secondary Schools of the Board of Education*, 1906 (price 3d., Form 1999). These lay down rules for new buildings, which the Board can recognise as suitable for secondary schools which are to be worked under their regulations for grants; they are also intended to set a standard. The demands as to space are considered by some local authorities to be counsels of perfection, but teachers know that the Board is right, while some medical authorities think their requirements

hardly enough from the hygienic point of view. The main point is the classroom area per scholar, the standard being 17 to 18 square feet, and the minimum 16. Some think the demands as to sanitary requirements also excessive; here again the experienced teacher, who knows where the difficulties are, would support the Board.

Any one who wishes to study what English expert opinion holds as to secondary school buildings has only to consult these official regulations. Should they need further information there is an elaborate text-book on the subject, containing plans (ninety-five in number) of leading and typical schools, and a full technical treatment of the various problems; it is *Modern School Buildings*, by Felix Clay, architect (London, 1906). This is not merely technical, it goes into educational questions, and is marked by real insight into the disciplinary difficulties of heads of schools; it also contains an admirable section on the hygienic side, ventilation, heating, etc. The first is indeed, as Mr. Clay says, a most difficult problem in schools, which are the hardest buildings to ventilate well. He carefully discusses the two prevalent systems, the Natural, where the fresh air comes in more or less of itself, and the foul air goes out by exits high up in the room, and the Plenum system, where the fresh air is forced in at the top and the foul air drawn out at the bottom by an elaborate mechanical system which means that the windows may never be opened. This, in the writer's experience, is a failure; it goes wrong easily, needs skilled control, and is very uncomfortable, especially in summer, when with wide open windows one can keep school as if out of doors. It is not suited to England, nor required by the English climate.

The natural system has the advantage that it trains girls on a system which will be that of their own homes. If they can learn to believe in the open window at school they will manage their homes better as women. There is

no reason why every girl should not understand and learn to manage a system of simple exits for foul air, and of ventilating fireplaces, which go far when intelligently worked to secure ventilation. The girls should be taught in turn to notice the temperature, and learn to regulate it. A wise form mistress will make them see to the proper condition of the classroom, and take a pride in its being wholesome, as well as neat and pretty. Mr. Clay thinks the best ventilation is a combination of the two systems, when fresh slightly warmed air under slight pressure comes in at a moderate height in the room, and there are large outlets high up for foul air. Hopper windows, louvres, and a lifting of the sash, so that fresh air can come in half-way up without causing a draught are all useful devices. Tobin's shafts are good, but they need care in regular cleaning. The lids are apt to get shut, while on cold winter days with the wind against the outer wall, the lids are necessary, since, unless these are closed, there is a bad draught. If there are ample outlets for foul air, which is the really poisonous thing, ventilation will be simple in an ordinary room. In large buildings these outlets high up in the walls are sometimes connected with a system of pipes leading to a central exit tower. This should have a mechanical fan in it, to draw out the foul air from all over the building. If there is electric light power is obtained from the current. The great difficulty with the exits for foul air is that in certain states of the weather, especially cold days with a high barometer, they turn into inlets for cold fresh air. Every system wants sense to work it, and consideration of wind, weather and temperature at the time.

As to heating, there is little doubt that the best plan is a combination of open fireplaces and hot-water pipes. The former must be of the kind that have ventilating chambers, through which in winter, warm fresh air may

come; they should not be so constructed as to send the heat up the chimney. For girls, fires in classrooms are most useful, apart from their excellence in ventilation; a girl who is chilled or out of sorts will often get quite right, or even be saved from an illness, if she can sit by the fire for a time during lessons. Hot-water pipes are needed to warm the corner of the room away from the fireplace; they should be under the control of the mistress, so as only to be used when necessary. They are needed in corridors, halls, studios, laboratories, etc., where the space is large, and fires would be unsuitable. Hot air is very bad for warming purposes; stoves are worse. Speaking generally, rooms should not be too hot—54° to 60° is the right standard. Girls should be warmly clad, take exercise, and be trained to dislike hot rooms. They are apt to be rather too fond of warmth.

The form being the unit of a school, the form room is the first thing to be considered in planning a building; it should be nearly square in shape, though some authorities prefer the oblong, the sides being in the proportion three to two. It need not be high; the space at the top is wasted and needs warming, and adds to the height of the building; over 12 and under 15 feet is right. The air space should be at least 250 cubic feet per pupil; with 260 cubic feet the air, according to Clay, is contaminated in sixteen minutes to a dangerous degree; the window space should equal from one-sixth to one-fourth of the floor area. For a form of twenty-five girls the following dimensions are given as ideal: 23 feet 6 inches by 19 feet by 13 feet 6 inches; three windows 5 feet by 8 feet 6 inches. This gives over 240 cubic feet, and nearly 18 square feet of floor, per pupil. In the Girls' Public Day Schools, with a room which may have to hold thirty, the proper dimensions are said to be 21 feet by 19 feet 6 inches by 13 feet 6 inches.

There are three types of school building; the first and most popular is the central hall type, where the classrooms are arranged round three sides (or less) of the central assembly hall, the upper storey ones opening into galleries. This is cheaper, convenient for clearing and filling the hall from the classrooms, and saves the time and energy of the head. This last is given in the books as its great merit; the whole school can be more easily controlled and inspected, and disorder and breach of rules noted at once. It may perhaps be permitted to a head mistress to observe that this seems to her a very poor reason. Form mistresses ought to be able to take care of their own forms, and head mistresses should be sufficiently agile and vigorous to go along corridors and up and down stairs, in making the necessary rounds of the building through the day. It is a poor business sitting on a platform at a desk in the centre of the hall watching everything, lest disorder should arise! In girls' schools it is quite unnecessary to-day; we think few head mistresses would agree with this argument for a central hall plan. They would say the plan was more beautiful and very convenient, though if the hall is much used for other purposes than assemblies it has inconveniences too.

The second type, which is more costly and often less impressive in appearance, is the corridor system, the one usual in America. Here the classrooms open into corridors, which must be wide, airy and well lit (or they favour disorder). This is the plan followed at the City of London School for Boys, St. Paul's School for Boys at Hammersmith, the new building of the King Edward's Girls' High School in Birmingham, the Manchester High School for Girls, and others. The assembly hall stands apart, either in a separate and very beautiful building, or in one side of the main building, or, as in America, at the top.

The writer has worked in large schools on both plans, in

the central type as an assistant, in the corridor type as a head, and unhesitatingly prefers the corridor type for ease in working, freedom of discipline, and general comfort.

The third plan is that of an adapted house; it has many merits, especially for a small school, numbering up to 150. Often, through changes in a suburban neighbourhood, a fine house and grounds can be secured at a low cost; it may contain a music or billiard-room or hall which can be used for assemblies; it may have beautiful decoration, good staircases and wide passages. Extra sanitary accommodation will always be required, and the provision of lavatory basins. Basement rooms, or rooms at the back can be used for dressing-rooms, and the new accommodation added in an annexe, adjoining and opening to the house by a well-ventilated passage or corridor; it must be so arranged as to be easily under control by mistresses. Sometimes an assembly hall has to be built specially; it can be arranged to serve as a gymnasium. Attics can be turned into studios (see Clay, chap. xiv.). Some of the Girls' Public Day Schools are interesting and valuable examples of this method; one recalls the Liverpool High School in particular.

If a new school building is to be erected, much care should be given to fitting the building to the needs and peculiarities of the school; the site should fulfil certain conditions; to be high and well drained; not on a noisy main street, yet accessible from trams and trains, if the school is large; to have a whole block or lot to itself, with no conterminous buildings; to have pleasant surroundings. In a girls' school this latter is especially important; one should avoid the neighbourhood of factories, or works with heavy machinery, of hotels, theatres, restaurants or public-houses, of offices and warehouses where large numbers of youths may be about the streets at the dinner hour; and so forth. It is very helpful if the site chosen be near a

public park, museum or picture gallery, to which classes may be easily taken for special study.

The proper aspect for the classrooms is south-east: this gets the morning sun in winter, and avoids the strong sunshine of noonday in summer. The latter makes a south-west aspect trying in the afternoon of half the year. Some otherwise excellent school buildings have the serious defect of a north or north-east aspect; the sun is needed in rooms where children live. These buildings were put up at a time when authorities advocated a north aspect as best for light, and when the health-giving properties of the sun's rays were not so generally understood.

Blinds may be considered a superfluity in this climate; but they will be required in rooms with a south-west aspect and in studios. As a rule, there is too little light and not too much, in English classrooms, especially in towns. Full details of the technical questions concerning lighting, treated from an American point of view, may be found in *The Lighting of Schoolrooms*, by Stuart H. Rowe, of Yale, (Longmans, 1904).

It is sufficient here to draw attention to the importance of having windows up to the top of the rooms (light near the floor is of no use to the children) and of seeing that the light should come from the left side of the pupil. The only artificial light for schools is of course electric light. It uses no air, and can be switched on and off to meet the emergencies of fog and darkness. The ordinary lamp is best; arc lights are obviously unsuitable; light from the ceiling by inverted arcs is very costly in current. Some of the patent lights giving extra strong illumination, like Nernsts, are required for sewing-rooms and for drawing on dark days. It is found that in an ordinary classroom for thirty girls seven points are required, each sixteen candle-power, one over the teacher's desk to illuminate the blackboard, and six for the girls. There should be four

switches, one for the single light, which may well be on a pilot system, and the six in three sets. Elaborate switching saves in the end, as only the light actually required is used. A room which will be used for parties and other functions should have the switches so planned that for these extraordinary occasions the "ballroom" standard of lighting may be secured.

It may be well, before treating of special parts of a building in detail, to quote the general statement of the Board of Education, even though one does not altogether agree with it:—

Section 1.—General.

Before any instructions are given to an architect to prepare plans for a new building careful consideration should be given to the proposed organisation of the school; the number of masters or mistresses to be employed; the probable size of the classes in the different parts of the school; the relative importance of the teaching of Science, Art or Manual Work; the possibility of grouping sets of rooms conveniently for certain branches of the work, etc., so that the plan of the building may be fully adapted for the work to be done in the school.

It is important to remember that as the actual numbers in a class can seldom be made to correspond closely with the various sizes of rooms provided, the nominal accommodation as shown by the plans should exceed the number for which the school is intended to provide. The custom of dividing up classes for different subjects again makes the provision of extra small class or division rooms desirable.

The rooms should be grouped compactly and conveniently in order to secure easy and effective supervision, and economy in working and maintenance. Generally speaking, in the case of schools where the number of scholars is considerable, this result can most satisfactorily be secured by placing the classrooms on three sides of, and opening from, a Central Hall. In the case, however, of small schools and those in which the hall is made to serve for a variety of purposes, it is often found more convenient to separate the classrooms from the hall in order to avoid disturbance.

Where more than one floor is necessary the upper rooms can be entered from a gallery which should be in full view of the hall. As far as possible, passages and corridors should be avoided; if used, they must be large, airy and well lighted.

The classrooms should have the upper panels of the doors glazed with clear glass, in order to facilitate inspection without disturbing the work in the room.

The accommodation of a room depends not merely on its area, but also on the lighting, position of the doors, fireplaces and the general shape of the room.

Assembly Hall.

We must now very briefly enumerate the chief parts of a school building other than the classroom, with a few notes as to the requirements of each. The hall must be capable of holding the whole school; the Board of Education requires 6 square feet per pupil. It may have to be used as a gymnasium, in which case it cannot be seated; it is always to be regretted if it has to be used as a playroom in wet weather. Some schools use it for drawing; if it is at the top of the building this may work very well, and the art associations do not jar with its more serious use for prayers and formal school assemblies. Small classes may meet in it, singing classes may very well use it, if it is not a central hall. It must have a platform; it may have a gallery. Many schools fit the platform up for dramatic performances. A great school should have an organ in the hall, beautiful decoration, and fittings as stately and good as means will allow.

Staircases.

There must be two for a school of over 150 girls; there should be no winders. Stone stairs are not as good against fire as hardwood, teak or oak, with plaster beneath on the under ceiling. The Board of Education recommend the type usual in elementary schools with solid walls on both

sides of the flights. This is quite wrong in a secondary school, where there is a great deal of passing up and down stairs at every change of lessons, and where it is most necessary to have an open staircase that can be controlled from above or below. With the Board's type elaborate supervision would be required; with the open type it is easy to prevent disorder. Most girls' high schools are very strict about order on the stairs; all speaking on the stairs is forbidden, and regulated movement enforced. This promotes smartness, checks waste of time, and prevents accidents.

Laboratories.

Generally speaking, there is a tendency to spend too much on these; much can be done with benches of the kitchen table type, a sink, cupboards, some fitted Bunsen burners, and a steady safe place for balances. A girls' school needs a biological laboratory rather than a chemical one; though of course if it is wealthy, and intends to offer special facilities in science, it should have both, in a separate science block, with a physics room and a greenhouse for growing specimens and conducting experiments. Much can be done by having one good laboratory for general elementary science, physics and chemistry, and another for botany, nature study and biology. Details for construction should be sought in special treatises.

Studio.

This is best placed at the top of the building, with a rooflight regulated by blinds: a long room which can have different divisions of pupils in different parts throughout the week is best; it should have ample stores' accommodation. The Board of Education rules require 30 square feet per pupil. Its statements as to equipment are admirable. Wall surface for free-arm drawing practice

by the scholars is very valuable. The storey in the roof of a building is hot in summer and cold in winter, and would be unsuited for form rooms. If a class only goes there once a week the objection does not so much matter.

Dining Hall and its Offices. Cookery Room.

Schools vary in their requirements here. If many stay to dinner and there are school societies having tea frequently, a good dining hall is well worth its cost. The kitchen should be on the same floor, close at hand, with a hatch or a serving pantry with sliding walls between it and the dining hall, so that food can be passed quickly through. The scullery, etc., and tradesmen's entrance should lie beyond the kitchen on the other side. If all this can be in a separate wing, shut off by doors to prevent smells entering the main building, so much the better. If not, it should be on the upper storey, as in the City of London School for Girls, with a lift for provisions. It is convenient to have the cookery room near. (Some schools use the actual kitchen for cookery lessons, but this is not advisable.) It should have a range *and* a gas stove, a sink, tables and raised benches at one end for demonstration. The floor should be wood blocks, and the walls white tiles.

Library and Common Rooms, etc.

It is most desirable to have a separate comfortable room for a library, which may well be beautiful if funds allow. It should not be either the sixth form room or the head mistress's room. It should be available all day for study by older girls, mistresses, and if possible former pupils. Clay in his book says there should be a separate mistresses' library; this is not only unnecessary but inexpedient. Mistresses and girls are both students, and as

such should use the same library. There must be a good mistresses' common-room, however, comfortably furnished, and free from interruption; we think it a great mistake to put it next to the head mistress's room. This should be in a central position, near the main entrance, and next the office or secretary's room. If space admits, it is a great boon if there is a small private room at the head mistress's disposal where she does not see visitors, but can work or rest, send a sick girl or mistress to be quite quiet, and conduct difficult private interviews. Small odd rooms are always useful; one never has too many, and often too few.

Gymnasium.

If means allow, a separate gymnasium, properly fitted, is very valuable. It serves as a playroom in wet weather and a common room for girls in the dinner hour, and as a dancing-room at all sorts of times as opportunities allow. It ought to be as large as possible, and must have a changing or dressing-room with wash-basins, and its own separate sanitary accommodation, opening out of it. In Germany and America baths are often found. It should have wooden blocks for the floor, leather covered mattresses, and *good* ventilation. Dust is a great enemy in gymnasiums; some kind of spraying is desirable every evening.

Playgrounds, etc.

We cannot do better than reproduce the Board's rules.

The area of the site should be sufficient not only to provide adequate playground space, but also, if possible, room for Cricket and Football, or, in the case of girls' schools, Hockey and Lawn Tennis. For this purpose it is desirable to secure from 3 to 4 acres for a small school, increasing with the size of the school and the extent to which such games are likely to be played.

In any case there must be an open, fairly square, properly levelled, drained and enclosed playground suitable to the size of the school, providing a clear unbuilt upon space of 50 square feet per head, but in no case must the playground contain less than 750 square yards. Special consideration will be given to the case of schools in large towns.

A part of the whole of this should be covered with asphalt or other suitable paving, in order to provide a suitable place for drilling, etc.

The playground should be given a warm, sunny aspect. Buttresses, corners and recesses should be avoided.

There should be a covered shed for games on wet days. In dual or mixed schools the playground should be separate for the two sexes.

Bicycle sheds should be provided.

Asphalt or cement seems a necessity in towns with our climate; either is bad. Falls on such hard material are dangerous; the surface wears with the heavy use it gets in a large school, and wears out the children's india-rubber shoes. Would that some one could invent some better material! Fives Courts may open into the playground. A school garden is highly desirable, and should adjoin the building; if at even a moderate distance it is much more difficult to work. Whenever possible a girls' school should stand in a garden or grounds of its own.

Cloakrooms and Sanitation.

The provision of cloakrooms or dressing-rooms is a very important matter in a girls' school. They must be roomy and well fitted, with a peg for each girl, clear of others' garments, and with a place for the outdoor shoes, it being the custom for girls in high schools to change their shoes when they come into school in the morning. There must be provision for drying garments and shoes on wet days. This is sometimes managed by having hot-water pipes below or behind the boot-racks. Places for umbrellas must

also be provided. The best way is under each girl's peg, the handle resting in a catch and the point on a zinc tray which runs along below the pegs. The floor should be wood blocks. There are two ways of arranging cloakrooms: one, the most popular, is to have one large cloakroom [as in the Birmingham High School] which can easily be supervised, or a range of cloakrooms side by side in the basement. The other way is more costly and less sightly, but infinitely more convenient to girls and mistresses, the American plan of having one cloakroom for a form, close to the form room. This may be seen in the Manchester High School for Girls, where the form rooms are on one side of a broad corridor, the cloakrooms on the other. This system also solves the problem of sanitary accommodation, which for hygienic reasons should not be in the main building, but which for reasons of discipline and womanly modesty should be easily accessible and easily controlled. It is *most unsatisfactory* to have the system now popular with architects, all the accommodation in one block, separate from the building, and down a corridor. The best way is for each cloakroom to have a separate closet, opening out by two doors, and a small cross-ventilated lobby, somewhat as in hospitals; they can be arranged in pairs, floor above floor, in wings standing out from the main building, separately ventilated, and with all the pipes easily accessible for repairs. The number required by the Board of Education regulations is "in the case of day schools one for every fifteen girls for the first hundred, and one for each succeeding twenty-five".

Wash-basins may very well be placed in the cloakrooms, if the traps outside are properly disconnected, and if the cloakrooms are not crowded. If there is one for each form of twenty-five to thirty, two basins serve well. If there is one cloakroom for the whole school, it is perhaps better

to have the basins in a separate place. We do not understand why the Board of Education recommends they should be in separate lavatories; this may be needed for boys, who "lark" and throw water about. Well-behaved girls do not, and even rougher ones are more likely to be careless in a separate lavatory than in a cloakroom where their roughness would injure others. The Board's regulations are as follows:—

Cloakrooms should be well lighted from the end. Gangways at least 4 feet wide should be made between the hanging-rails and seats. Pegs for hats and cloaks should be numbered, placed not less than 12 inches apart, and not placed one above another. In lavatories slate troughs with loose, not fixed, basins are recommended. The number of lavatory basins in day schools should be one for every ten scholars up to a hundred, and one for every fifteen scholars above the first hundred. The floors should be of asphalt or other impervious material and the walls of glazed brick or tile, or with at least a dado of 5 feet high of such materials. Glazed partitions should be used as far as possible. Changing-rooms should be provided with fixed seats, pegs, lockers and boot-racks. In small day schools accommodation for changing may be provided in the cloakroom.

A lock-up slop sink, water-tap and cupboard are desirable for the caretaker.

Cleaning, etc.

The care of a building such as we have described is no small business; it must be cleaned, redecorated, kept in repair. The general charge is, as a rule, given to some respectable man of the artisan class, who can do small repairs and manage apparatus for heating, etc. If well selected, well paid and well treated, he may become a very valuable servant, devoted to the place, and saving money to the governors by looking after the beginnings of mischief in the building. He should by preference be a skilled workman or a sailor, not a mere caretaker, or a

man without a trade. He should do some of the cleaning, unless the school is very large. Maids and charwomen generally do this, controlled by a working housekeeper who may be the wife of the schoolkeeper, or in a large school by a lady housekeeper who ranks with the mistresses. There is something to be said for both systems of control, and both have their difficulties. Some responsible person should regularly inspect the closets and sanitary accommodation generally. The amount of cleaning required varies with the district. Sweeping once a day is essential, and careful dusting. Dust is *the* enemy as it is the carrier of disease. Sawdust wetted with a solution of carbolic or other disinfectant should be compulsory in all sweeping. If the maids are few and the dusting is not thorough, one should ask for volunteers among the girls before school. Periodical scrubbing is necessary, but harmful to floors. Wood blocks can be cleaned best with wet sand; floors should be treated with some of the patent polishing mixtures which do not make a slippery surface. Cork carpet thus treated is recommended by some. Window cleaning must be regularly seen to, and traps and gutters and gully holes regularly inspected and cleared. Periodic painting and whitewashing can be done in the long vacation. If a school is prosperous and has a surplus revenue it should lay by for a repairs fund. After about twenty-five years serious repairs and renewals will be needed, such as new boilers, new sanitary apparatus and drains, new desks, teachers' tables, etc. Everything will wear out at once, and unless there has been a depreciation fund accumulated, the burden on the finances will be serious. Few schools have yet come to this awkward stage in their history.

Furniture and Equipment.

The needs of schools vary so much, and the varieties of school furniture change so quickly, that it is impossible to treat the subject fully here. The value of the single desk is becoming generally recognised; it is of enormous importance for health, discipline, and moral training. The realisation of personality, of self-respect, of the moral responsibility of the individual are closely connected with it. The girl must have her place in the school, her desk, locker, peg; it is like a citizen having a stake in the country. In a school whose tone is established, girls should be allowed to choose their places in the form room, subject to the mistress's approval. Desks should be adjustable to the height and proportions of the pupil, have a comfortable back, seat, and foot rest; all these are provided in a new desk, the "Farringdon," brought out by the Educational Supply Association, Holborn, which is specially arranged for girls' physiological needs; it is popular with girls, a merit not always found in hygienic furniture, but it cannot be cheap or light, owing to the iron framework for adjustments. English schools are generally deficient in proper blackboards, which are absolutely necessary for accurate teaching and illustration, and for demonstration by pupils. America is far superior in this respect. Two if not three of the walls of a classroom should be lined with material for writing on (prepared glass or slate is the best, though the most costly) from the height of 3 feet 6 inches above the floor to 7 feet; in rooms for small children this "blackboard" space should begin at 2 feet, or in the kindergarten at 1 foot 8 inches. If the school cannot afford glass or slate, some prepared material can be used; if it already has a boarded or plastered wall, prepared cloth can be fastened on. In regard to equipment to help in teaching, English schools are also lamentably deficient except for science.

Germany can show us what there is in maps and pictures and diagrams. Models and lantern slides for use in classical teaching are now being introduced.[1] In history the teacher herself can do a good deal, but should make her own collection as she goes on, the school providing costly historical maps, and some good pictures, such as Meisonnier's "1814" or Holbein's "More". Fine sculpture, if only in casts, has great educational value. One would like every girls' secondary school to possess a copy of the Venus of Milo. A sum, which need be but small, should be ear-marked for pictures in the original estimates for furniture; good reproductions of the masterpieces, such as those of Braun et Cie., Paris, can now be had at a low cost.

The science mistress should have a liberal annual grant for material and the renewal of apparatus, and should not be required to ask separately for each small article.

A very practical chapter may well end with the most practical of details, cost, which again we owe to Mr. Clay's book.

The rate is capital expenditure per head for a secondary school.

With strict economy	£25 to £30
Good, fulfilling Board of Education requirements .	£45 to £50
Better class type	£50 to £60
Reasonable maximum in some districts . . .	£70
Boarding house	£150

[1] "Such appliances as books, maps, charts, models, diagrams, lantern slides and electric lanterns, telephones, collections of specimens, physical and chemical apparatus, casts, photographs, pictures, typewriters and pianos. To try to teach without these aids is like trying to stop a conflagration with buckets passed from hand to hand."—President Eliot, *More Money for the Public Schools.*

CHAPTER VI.

CORPUS SANUM.

WHEN, after considering organisation, teachers, the school building and equipment, we come to the pupil, the first thing to consider is bodily health. We want a sound healthy animal, trained in good bodily habits, if we are successfully to achieve intellectual and moral education. But, as we all know, the children who come to us are not by any means in this happy state of physical vigour; they do not always possess the sound body. The secondary schools are not in such bad case as the primary, and the parents in general look after the children carefully. But the school finds it has something to do for them also (particularly if the girls are to do hard head-work), remembering that the years of growth and adolescence, from thirteen to sixteen, which the secondary school course covers, are of such special importance to the future health of girls. Important as are bodily vigour and active strength—kinetic energy—in the men of a country who may have to endure the supreme test of physical fitness in war, the vitality and passive strength—potential energy—of its women are even more important, since Nature has ordained women to be the mothers of the race. Thus on every ground, intellectual, individual and national, the high schools have been from the beginning obliged to secure healthy physical conditions for their girls, and to plan for the maximum of physical efficiency. The introduction of games and gymnastics for women is due to them, and they have helped in the extension of the English traditions of open-

air life and exercise, from a select few of the upper class to multitudes of women in all ranks of society—a change in social conditions which is one of the most remarkable of the Victorian era.

It was an important part of the ideals of the pioneer women in education that girls should be healthy and strong; a characteristic utterance of one of them was "It is a sin to be ill". If the laws of health were taught to and observed by women, she said, they would have the reward of their obedience in perfect health. In the days when feminine weakness and physical delicacy were thought to be womanly charms such a standard needed to be set up. The teaching of hygiene, and the inclusion in the curriculum of regular formal physical training by gymnastic exercises were marked characteristics of the high schools from their very beginning, as was also very careful supervision of the school building and equipment, and of the physical condition of the pupils. Regular medical inspection by a school doctor began almost as soon as there were women doctors qualified to carry out such inspection. Organised games did not come at first; that would have been too great a breach of continuity with the past; but when, about 1880 to 1890, college women began to come into the schools as assistant and head mistresses, they brought games with them, the games they had learnt to appreciate at college. The *locus classicus* on girls' games at school is an article by Miss Dove, one of the first Girton students, called "Cultivation of the Body," in *Work and Play in Girls' Schools*, St. Leonard's School, St. Andrews, N.B., being one of the first schools to lead in this matter. The article should be read; it is the formal statement by an expert of the case for games.[1]

Gymnastics, however, since it is cheaper, easier to

[1] See also, *Games and Athletics in Secondary Schools for Girls*, by Penelope Lawrence, Head Mistress of Roedean School, Brighton. Education Deparment's *Special Reports on Educational Subjects*, vol. ii., 1898.

manage, more uniform, and more controlled, was at first the ideal of exercise. It has the great merit of preventing and checking nervous instability. Not only has the well-known Swedish system been followed, but also another less rigid type, the "German" system, which is eclectic, borrowing exercises from every system, and using music. Some authorities consider the German system much more suitable to girls, since it can be adapted to the cultivation of grace, is lively and spirited, and since it is much less of a nervous strain. Rhythm is a natural race instinct in physical actions intended for pleasure, as in the dancing of savage tribes, the ballads of primitive peoples, and the song games of children. The omission of music and rhythm, the constant word of command in Swedish exercises appear to some of us grave mistakes in physical training. Gymnastics to be good should be pleasurable. That they are so, the experience of many schools would prove, especially if by forming teams the element of co-operation can be introduced. If the school has a gymnasium eight, each of these leaders should have a team of her own, of younger and less expert girls, and work them up under the teacher's direction. Competitions may introduce an element of over-stimulation, but with care they may do good. The writer strongly disapproves, however, of a sports day for girls over twelve years of age. This is a mere imitation of the ways of boys' schools; no benefit to physical training or health is secured by having sports, and they may lead to personal vanity, nervous excitement, and serious physical overstrain. This is not, however, a general view; many schools have "sports" for their girls, and do not think that any harm is done by a pleasant afternoon's activity in the open air among parents and friends.

Dancing on the other hand should be encouraged; it is an ideal form of exercise for girls, if in well-ventilated rooms and in the day or early evening.

Swimming, in a country like ours, ought to be as obliga-

tory as the three R's. It is an exercise especially valuable for girls if suitable precautions are taken; it, like gymnastics, was advocated in the very early days, forty years ago. The public bath is often available; a separate swimming bath is in general an unnecessary expense. Supervision at the bath by the ordinary form mistresses, who should themselves be able to swim, is, however, necessary, as accidents may easily happen.

Gardening is a form of exercise whose value should not be forgotten. It is excellent for anæmic and nervous girls, or those with heart troubles, who cannot play games. It is an essentially womanly occupation, and one whose cultivation at school is of importance to the community. If all girls could be made to take an interest in horticulture, the housing problem would be solved, for the women of the nation would refuse to have children brought up in a house without a garden.

The importance of the medical examination of school children is now generally recognised. Many girls' schools have a woman doctor on the staff to conduct this, and very careful records are kept; all the gymnastic teaching is supervised by her, and special exercises ordered for girls whose development is abnormal.[1] We may quote Sir John Gorst in an address to the Teachers' Guild :—

> In the first place, the medical examination on the admission of a boy or girl into school ought to be made a great deal more comprehensive than it is at present. The school authorities have a perfect right to require such a medical examination to see if the intending pupil is fit to go through the school course, and, if the particular points to which the medical officer's attention should be called were carefully thought out, and a record of the bodily condition of the boys and girls kept, it would be of very great advantage. It would enable the teachers very often to report to the parents defects or weaknesses of which they have no previous idea, and it would be very valuable in relation to vital statistics and in enabling comparisons to be made with the child's condition later on.

[1] The Clapham High School has remarkable results of this work.

Health.

The whole subject of the care of health at school is so large and important that it cannot be adequately treated here. Reference must be made to standard works on the subject, like Dr. Clement Dukes' *Health at School* (Rivingtons). One can only underline, as it were, statements of special importance to girls.

The first we would quote in Dr. Dukes' own words, the more emphatically as some of the girls' high schools have to some extent gone in exactly the opposite direction, and demanded from girls absolute regularity and steadiness of application to work. This is one of the very few points where the tradition is wrong, and where it must be modified.

> Continual application to work from day to day, from week to week, and from month to month, should never be enforced on girls. Nor should they be allowed to make these efforts. Periodical cessation and rest should be both encouraged and enforced.

How to obey this rule, which is a physical necessity for sound *permanent* health in most cases, and at the same time to prevent idleness, slackness, and hysterical self-indulgence, is the most difficult problem head mistresses have to solve. It is for the mother, in the first instance, to look to the health of her girl, and to secure for her the necessary rest, to keep her at home in bed when she needs special care. But the school must help the mother, by putting no obstacles in her way, and by recognising the need for care. This co-ordination can only be achieved by happy and intimate relations between mothers and teachers, and teachers and girls, by relaxing the pressure of examinations, by the help of women doctors, and by leaving the education of girls in the control of women. It is impossible for men teachers to consider and care for the health of girls and women teachers as a woman can.

Another matter of importance for the day school is forbidding girls to sit in wet clothing. They must be compelled to have umbrellas and waterproofs, to "change their feet" as the Scotch have it, that is, shoes and stockings both, if wet; there must be provision for drying the hair, skirts, etc., on wet or snowy mornings, when girls who have come a long distance to school can hardly with any care keep completely dry. All this is a great worry, but it must be done.

Food and sleep are in general matters for the home; but the school has its part. First, the amount of home work must be such as to admit of proper amount of sleep. This, according to Dr. Dukes, is at least as follows:—

Under 13	10½	hours.
„ 15	10	„
„ 17	9½	„
„ 19	9	„

Nowadays in towns most people do not sleep enough, and the school should use its influence in encouraging girls to sleep more. The old-fashioned exhortations to the sluggard are out of place to-day; one should exhort girls to go to bed early always, and to put in extra sleep in the holidays. It may be well at this point to draw attention to the value of sending a girl to bed as a punishment. Her naughtiness is often due to nervous irritability and fatigue; the absolute quiet and solitude of a day or two in bed, with no amusements and only simple food (such as bread and milk) is not only penal in most cases, but restorative.

Girls also need advice about food; many do not eat enough, or enough of the right things. Consultation between school and home may do good here; in some cases the home arrangements need modification, especially as to breakfast. No girl should ever be allowed to come to school without a good breakfast; if she cannot eat it, she is not

fit to come to school. Nowadays, among the classes who send their girls to secondary schools, personal cleanliness is generally well cared for by home authorities, but some few younger girls need watching occasionally. The head master of a great urban day school has a home hygienic code for his boys which he calls the three B's—Bed, Bath, Breakfast.

Teachers should know something about the signs of infectious illness; measles and whooping-cough in a day school are the really troublesome things, as they are infectious beforehand. Some teacher on the staff should have a knowledge of first aid. Every school should have a room where girls can be sent to lie down, and there should be some competent woman in the place who is free to look after a suffering child without taking the teacher away from her lesson. A delicate growing girl is often much the better of being "turned out to grass" for a time, away from school for a term; but she should not be lounging about at home, she should have a regular routine of life if with her mother, or should go away on a farm or to the sea or for treatment under proper conditions. The advice of a *woman* doctor is often very helpful in such cases.

Dress with girls has an important bearing on health, and dress reform was advocated and encouraged more than thirty years ago by the pioneer women in education. The growth of games and gymnastics has done much, very much, for reform. Girls brought up to vigorous open-air exercise will not endure excessively tight, heavy, unhygienic clothing. This effect is one of the best results of the games movement. Far more harm has been done and is being done to women and their children by tight and unwholesome dress, than is ever likely to be done by athletics for girls. Speaking generally, the tone of girls' public schools in England about dress is sound: neatness, simplicity and good sense prevail. Foreign visitors notice this, and they

are surprised that there is not more display, rivalry and vanity. We should be very much ashamed of ourselves if there were! School authorities generally make sumptuary rules which the homes on the whole loyally follow. Fortunately in England the highest social classes set the example of simplicity of dress for children and young girls; and this makes it easier for the schools to enforce their regulations. The rules may require the wearing of a school hat or cap with the colours; forbid unnecessary ornaments, rings, necklaces, bracelets; prescribe a certain arrangement of the hair; forbid high heels; require a special dress for gymnastics and games; or a white dress with the school colours for public functions; and so forth. Much is also done by personal influence and quiet private advice; all this is part of moral training, as well as of physical. Tact is needed, lest the mother should feel her authority and taste interfered with, and sometimes there are difficulties. A weak school may have to give way: a strong school can stand up for what it thinks right. Indeed the girls' schools can do something in this direction to influence opinion about dress, and set a standard in a matter where the extravagance of the well-to-do women may be almost as injurious to national welfare as is drunkenness among the masses.

The daily journey to and from school may affect health, and certainly affects manners. It must be under the control of the school authorities, that is, regulations made by the school for it must be obeyed. There has been a tendency sometimes for parents to think that the pupil was free from school control the moment he or she left the doors of the school building. This is not so; the day schools must uphold their rights in the interests of the pupils themselves. The regulations must vary so much with local conditions that one cannot go into details; trains, trams, walking, bicycling need different control;

rural, urban, and suburban neighbourhoods have different needs. It is found in practice that trams are much more suitable for girls coming to school than are trains; municipal trams especially. Much can be done by prefects and monitors, and by friendly interest and care on the part of mistresses, to remove difficulties and yet avoid formal surveillance, which is contrary to the English spirit of freedom and self-control.

Games.

As we have seen, the introduction of games into girls' education began more than fifteen years ago. We can therefore estimate the effect from experience as well as from theory. The battle for games has not now to be fought; the moral dangers due to an excessive indulgence in what is after all not the main business of life, either at school or afterwards, have already shown themselves clearly. Whether the physical injury due to excess in the case of girls, has already shown itself is disputed, and is a question for medical rather than educational authority. What matters to the school is that it should guard against excess, and be well aware of the very serious evils which may hence arise both to girls themselves and to the next generation. The pendulum has probably swung too far in the direction of over-exertion, just as, years ago, girls were not allowed enough open-air exercise. This is especially true of the wealthier girls, who belong to the social classes in which men and boys care so much for games and sport that national efficiency is actually being impaired by their preoccupation. It would be a sad thing were it true of women, what A. C. Benson says of the men he knows: "If we are brought up ourselves to depend on games, and if we bring up our boys to depend on them, we are not able to do without them as we grow older".[1] The head

[1] *From a College Window.*

mistress of the Blackheath High School in her Presidential Address to the Association of Head Mistresses this year drew attention to the danger that girls were coming to think games the only form of pleasure or pastime, and that their days were too much filled up. Professor Sadler in his Huddersfield Report says the same thing :—

> In their excessive zeal for school games, there is reason to think that some English secondary schools are attaching too much importance to this side of school life. Compulsory participation in school games is not by any means a benefit to all girls.

Dr. Jane Walker, at the National Union of Women Workers' Conference, 1906, is a third witness. She said :—

> So that, on all hands, judging from my own limited experience alone, I feel compelled to give a warning note against making physical health and strength the principal aim of our national well-being. Far more important really is our intellectual supremacy, and immeasurably more important is our moral and spiritual prowess.
>
> There is a danger of making a fetish of exercise, and this is becoming increasingly marked amongst women.

At this conference an afternoon was allotted to a careful discussion of the whole subject of games and gymnastics for girls, and reference should be made to the Official Report[1] by those who wish for further information. All the speakers, who represented home, school, colleges and the medical profession, recognised the moral value of games, both positively, in developing corporate life, teaching the virtues of co-operation, obedience and self-control in little things, and negatively, in checking silly sentimentality, foolish chatter and hysterical morbidness. We may quote from the paper of Miss B. A. Clough of Newnham College :—

[1] To be obtained at the Union Office, Parliament Mansions, Victoria Street, S.W., price 1s.

It is undeniable that they frequently occupy a place in girls' thoughts which might be filled by something more fruitful, but one has to take the probabilities into account, and consider what would be likely to be in the heads that games fill, and I incline to think there might easily be less wholesome matters. Games, I do believe, drive out much silliness; they occupy the vacant space, and they also produce an antiseptic atmosphere. An active game is, I hold, more likely to produce a healthy atmosphere, a healthy outlook on things, than any other form of exercise, because of the concentration, the complete forgetfulness of self, and the quickening of the blood which accompany it.

Teachers know the truth of this; a simple healthy tone, free from self-consciousness and nervous excitement, is much more easily secured in a school if the games are vigorous; though in a day school, where the girls and teachers are not shut up in one another's exclusive society week after week, the need is probably less great than in a boarding school. On the other hand, the need for training public spirit through games is greater in the day school, since the occasions for common action are less.

Similarly all the speakers recognised the physical advantages and the physical dangers of games for girls. We may quote from Mrs. Corbett, who on that occasion represented the mother's point of view:—

> But there are serious dangers and these should be recognised and guarded against by us mothers. The full and perfect life of a woman contemplates her being a mother, and nothing must be allowed to militate against her efficiency in this respect, her citizenship demands it of her. During the years of change, and before growth has entirely finished, all the time indeed that she is physically incomplete, and that would be until she is two or three and twenty, she must be discreet.
>
> *Mothers are the only persons who can rightly direct the athleticism of the present day*—teachers have the honour of their school or house at heart, and every consideration must be sacrificed to winning the match, but the mother can rule by reason and a wider knowledge, and can place the old head upon the

young shoulders. Do not we all know of brilliant players for college or school ruined in health, at least for long years, by playing some violent game when physically unfit? No one can regret such cases more than those who most approve of athletics for girls.

We fear there are some young and inexperienced teachers, themselves exceptionally strong and vigorous women, who may have given rise to Mrs. Corbett's reflection on their excess of zeal.

There was less unity of opinion as to the danger of mental over-absorption in games. The present writer expressed the strongest view on this side:—

The very charm and interest of games, of play, are themselves a danger. Life is not all amusement, and young people are not sent to school merely to have a good time, but to be prepared for the duties and the troubles of later years. Boys' games do thus prepare them, men say, and it probably is so. But it is impossible to allow growing girls to risk the physical hardships and even suffering of some of the games which teach boys endurance—cross country running and Rugby football, for example. Girls' games, except for an occasional hack at hockey, must have the painful and dangerous element eliminated, and consequently they must necessarily miss the ascetic effect. Games thus become so delightful—we know they are delightful in themselves to boys—that girls and women come to care for nothing else. The claims of home, the interest of intellectual effort, the joys of art, the call of social work, and of duties even more sacred, all are disregarded for the mere physical pleasure of the game, and for the exhilaration of athletic success. That this is a very real danger, this absorption in games, a little experience soon teaches one to-day, whether in society or in school. Some girls do tend to neglect for games their regular ordinary form work, not so much perhaps by leaving it undone, for a proper system of school discipline prevents that, as by diverting from it their main energy and thought. Each one of us has only a certain amount of vital force, and if it is spent on games, it is not there when wanted for work. "Where your treasure is, there will your heart be also" is a very deep saying; life is too serious a thing for even a school girl to set her heart, as so many do, on the fairy gold of success in games.

A younger woman, Miss G. Courtenay, an old high school girl, made a valuable addition to the discussion; she thought

> that the abuse of games was due to very athletic schools where games were compulsory. A girl going to a school of that class became fascinated by games, to the exclusion of everything else.

We shall see in Chapter XIV. that corporate life in school can be developed otherwise than by games.

On the other hand there are secondary schools for girls where much more attention needs to be given to games than is at present the case: urban schools in congested areas; pupil teachers' centres; middle schools for girls of the social class who leave school at fifteen or sixteen; rural schools in small places; many municipal secondary schools. The poorer middle class girl, who has to work hard to prepare for professional life, the lower middle class girl, whose home and social tradition are against athletic exercise for women, the country girl, who wants training in corporate life and public spirit, all these need games badly; unfortunately it is often very difficult to get just these very girls to play. There is (in towns) no ground, no spare money for subscriptions, little leisure, and frequent disapprobation on the part of the home. At no other point in school life does the difference of social class show itself so distinctly as here. The upper class girl is likely to do and care too much for games; the lower class girl does and care far too little. Thus different arrangements must be made for different schools and sets of girls. It is impossible to dogmatise or lay down detailed rules. There is one rule only, and that ancient indeed, "Not too much" (*μηδὲν ἄγαν*).

In regard to the games chosen, it is important that they should be in the open air, should include a large number of players, and should possess the element of combination,

playing for one's side, not for oneself. The national game of cricket is the best, though of course the girls' game is not what the boys' is; some would say it is not cricket at all.

For a winter game hockey is popular; some object to it as rough and leading to ungainliness. Lacrosse is better in some ways; it is graceful and exciting, but more difficult and dangerous. Basket-ball or net-ball, a girls' game, is excellent; it is like hockey or football in principle, but the goals are baskets or nets hung high up on posts, and the ball is thrown up by the hand and extended arm. Fives and lawn tennis are very good in themselves, but lack combination. Still they arouse interest, and lead to form matches and pleasant competitions, where girls play for their school or form, not for themselves. Fives takes little room or time; suits the winter and is cheap, once the courts have been built. It is a game for town schools with a bad climate. There is a very good account of games for girls in the *Girls' School Year Book*, which gives the arguments and organisation, details as to the leagues, and a careful account of the different games.

In concluding what must needs be a superficial treatment of a subject that needs a book to itself, it should be noted that in a day school girls may, and often do, have opportunities out of school for games and physical training with their fathers and brothers, the girls they "know at home" and family friends. This is often on many grounds much the best way. Speaking generally the school should not seek to do what the home can do as well or better. This is a weighty reason, as well as others mentioned before, against compulsory school games for girls.

CHAPTER VII.

MENS SANA: CURRICULUM.

AFTER the healthy body comes the healthy mind: how is it to be made and kept healthy? In other words, what are the best ways of intellectual education? The answer divides itself into two parts, Curriculum, what we teach; and Method, how we teach it. The first is thus formally defined: "An ordered sequence of studies, developing the whole nature, each taken at the time when the child is psychologically ready for it—each doing its part in training the powers, and forming a complete outline or microcosm of the world of organised knowledge".

In this are included the three principles of curricula. The first is that of training. The school has to develop the various powers of the child, to make her think and act effectively. It is this principle which is responsible for the place of Latin in our plans; it ought also to be responsible for the place of handwork as a compulsory study in every type of education. Historically the introduction of mathematics into the high school curriculum was due to the effort to check the inaccuracy and unreason which were then supposed to need special repression in women (Chapter I., p. 7).

Second, we have the well-known theorem that the order of subjects in school life is conditioned by the laws of development of the child. The reasoning powers develop late; hence geometry, algebra and Latin should not be introduced till twelve years of age. On the other hand,

the imitative faculties are keen in childhood, and co-ordination of eye and hand easy. Physical and manual training should, therefore, be an important part of early education.

The third, the value of *knowledge*, is best stated in Nicholas Murray Butler's definition of education as "the gradual adjustment to the spiritual possessions of the race". There is a vast realm of spiritual inheritance, of knowledge, truth and beauty, won for us by the leaders of human thought, and forming the non-material part of our civilisation. This is the right of our children; from it we draw the subjects of our curriculum. Dr. Butler classifies these possessions as five-fold:—

> The child is entitled to his scientific inheritance, to his literary inheritance, to his æsthetic inheritance, to his institutional inheritance, and to his religious inheritance. Without them he cannot become a truly educated or a cultivated man.[1]

Science, literature and language, art, history and religion must all be included in a complete education.

These three principles lead us to a broad rather than to a narrow curriculum, for no narrow scheme of study can give to the child the fulness of its spiritual inheritance. The *allgemeine Bildung* of the German schools must be an ideal, including in it the acquisition of practical skill in some forms of handwork and bodily accomplishments which have much value as mental training.

German pedagogy gives us in the work of Herbart, the great educational thinker (1776-1841), the deeper underlying principles of curricula. "Humanity," he said, "educates itself continuously, by the circle of thought which it begets." On the formation of the circle of thought (*Gedankenkreis*) depends the good, that is the *enlightened* will, which is the source of morality. Intel-

[1] *The Meaning of Education*, pp. 17 *et seq.* London, 1893.

lectual instruction helps to form this circle of thought by the presentations which the mind receives and understands. "Both will and wisdom have their roots in the circle of thought, that is to say in the continuation and co-operative activity of the presentations acquired, and the true cultivation of that circle instruction alone can give." This instruction depends on a *many-sided* interest, which is prompted by teaching, and is directed towards many objects. It will be seen that this psychology demands a broad curriculum, with emphasis on the humanities; Herbart's followers make history the centre of it. "The youth must see humanity in history."[1]

Arnold, too, believed profoundly in the relation between intellectual and moral power, "the general union of moral and intellectual excellence". This was what he meant by moral thoughtfulness: "the inquiring love of truth going along with the devoted love of goodness".[2] He says in a Rugby sermon, "I have still found that folly or thoughtlessness have gone to evil; that thought and manliness have been united with faith and goodness". History was, it is well known, his favourite study, and for this reason the promotion of moral vigour.

> The unity of education, the unity of history are his moving ideas; and we shall fall short indeed of the true estimation of Arnold's work for the study of history, if we confine it to such matters as his co-ordination of geography with history. . . . Infinitely more important than all these important things was the clearness with which he himself apprehended, and taught others to apprehend, the bearing of literature and of history upon life, and of life, in its turn, upon literature and history. . . . Arnold, therefore, like Herbart, concentrates and unifies his curriculum; but he does far more, he concentrates and unifies the whole of human life; the core of his circle of studies

[1] *The Science of Education.* Herbart, translated by H. M. and E. Felkin. Sonnenschein, London, 1892.

[2] See Findlay's *Arnold of Rugby*. The University Press, Cambridge, 1897.

is active Christian citizenship, and their proportionate value depends upon the degree in which they help to make that citizenship intelligent and earnest.[1]

As we have seen in Chapter I., the curriculum of girls' high schools was formed historically by adding the boys' Latin and mathematics to the traditional English subjects, French and art, of the girls' education. When science came into the schools that, too, was added, and thus the curriculum has become terribly overcrowded, and a scattering of interest, over-pressure, superficial knowledge and cram have been encouraged. These evils are now being met in various ways, by an elective system for the later years of the school course, by a stratification of subjects, so that only a few need be learnt at once, and by correlating one subject with another, *e.g.*, history and geography, algebra and physics, drawing and nature study. It is one merit of the narrow curriculum that unity is preserved, that the pupil by giving a great deal of time to one subject is not distracted and confused, that she is continuously working in the same medium, and along the same lines, and that the trace of one day's work is followed by that of the next, and not obliterated by entirely different studies and subjects. In the tables at the end of this chapter will be found an attempt at stratification of subjects and concentration of interest.[2]

We may now proceed to discuss briefly some of the chief subjects of instruction; there is, however, a warning which must first be given. The subjects in a curriculum are means; they are not really the material with which our art is concer ed. The children are our material; the

[1] H. L. Withers, *The Teaching of History*. Manchester, the University Press, 1904.

[2] A valuable philosophical discussion from a somewhat different point of view will be found in Barnett's *Common Sense in Education and Teaching*, Chapters IV. and V.: "Genesis of Curricula," "Manipulation of Curricula". The influence of national ideals on curricula is strikingly explained.

studies are the means by which we affect it—though the real power lies in the personality of the teacher. The child comes into our class or our school; we have to influence it. It would be possible to do this without any formal subjects of instruction;[1] a brilliant and original teacher can influence and educate pupils by questioning, talking at large, as apparently Pestalozzi did in his lessons about the holes in the paper of the school-room walls. But, in any case, the child incorporates what we give into the substance of its mind; to her the subjects are material for growth.

First of these subjects is the group called the humanities, English literature and language, history and geography; with these should be classed pedagogically religious instruction, for which we prefer the traditional title divinity. These subjects, essential for all, are *the* part of the curriculum most valuable to a girl; it is from these she must receive the mental and emotional training for her future life as a woman. They are in general well taught and popular in girls' high schools. Unfortunately, the influence of examinations on the best teaching of this kind is generally adverse. Much that is claimed for the effect of classics on boys as a humanising influence is found by experience to be provided for girls through the humanities in English. The excellence of this part of the work of high schools is one of the valuable elements they can add to English education—a fact fully recognised by several eminent authorities among men inspectors and experts. History ought to be indeed the centre of the curriculum; it widens a girl's ideas, teaches her human nature, and lifts her above

[1] "Ce sont moins les matières de l'enseignement qui importent que la manière dont elles sont enseignées. Les programmes n'ont qu'une valeur secondaire. Ce qui est essentiel, ce n'est pas tel ou tel procédé de culture, mais la culture elle-même, pourvu qu'elle soit assez profonde pour atteindre les sources mêmes de la vie intellectuelle et morale" (M. Ribot, *Enquête sur l'enseignement secondaire*. No^e. 1196, p. 30).

pettiness, and narrow thoughts.[1] "Vous enseignez la science mère," said an eminent Frenchman, of history teaching. Be this as it may, it is an essential education for a mother, if she is to teach her children culture and citizenship.

Traditionally, French has always been a subject in girls' secondary education; it still holds its own. Not only is this language of practical use, but it is worth learning for its own sake. The training in the use of language through grammar, and in the mental faculties of discrimination, accuracy and reasoning power given by the study of French is almost as good as that derived from the study of Latin; further, the appreciation of another civilisation, another way of living, the broadening influence of understanding even a little of the literature and life of a foreign country, are of peculiar importance to a girl, whose horizon is often very limited, who may suffer all her days from narrow prejudices unless the school seeks to enlighten her. One way to do this is by the study of a people rich, as are the French, in just those elements of civilisation in which England is deficient. The instruction, therefore, should be literary and not wholly grammatical, and should be illustrated by what the Germans call "Realien," things from the real life of the foreign land.

Next will come either Latin or German, for those who have time and ability to learn more than one foreign language. Latin at present is elbowing German out of the

[1] "The question how to give a general education which shall be at once wide and at the same time not superficial, has been made immensely more complicated. It is to that question, on the solution of which our intellectual vitality in the future more than on any other depends, that we shall have to address ourselves in the twentieth century.

"We must lighten our curricula not by throwing away this or that indispensable limb of the organic unity of knowledge, but by making those curricula consciously represent that unity, by showing the organic connection of their different parts and obliging each subject to play into the hands of all. When we seriously set ourselves to carry out that task, we shall find that history, in its widest sense, as the record of the process by which man has come to be what he is, already furnishes a subject by means of which it will be possible to correlate the various aspects of knowledge as they have in positive fact been correlated in the gradual upward progress of humanity" (H. L. Withers, *The Teaching of History*).

girls' schools; a clever girl can, however, learn all three, German last. Latin has such value in grammatical training and as an aid to the study of English that even two years of it are worth having. We have never heard a woman regret having learnt Latin, even a little Latin, in her youth; we have heard many a one regret ignorance of it. Rome lies like a great rock at the basis of the civilisation of Western Europe, and no person is completely educated who knows nothing of Latin. At the same time girls ought not to be forced to learn it. Those who have only a short time at school, or have to begin to work at bread studies early, as well as those who are dull or delicate, cannot afford the time and energy. It is customary to begin the language at twelve plus; with careful teaching and the elimination of the unfit, the forms make progress at a rate which surprises the master in a boys' school; in the end, girls who care for classics (and these are some of the ablest in our schools) do very well. They begin Greek at fifteen and often excel in it.

Mathematics should be kept at a minimum for girls; it does not underlie their industries as it does so many of the activities of men—engineering, building, the art of war, finance, manufactures. It is needed for training only; an excess of it, the subject being useless to them and disconnected with their life, has a hardening effect on the nature of women. In the opinion of the present writer, who, it may be noted, took the Mathematical Tripos at Cambridge, it is much to be regretted that the universities make mathematics compulsory in their entrance examinations, and that the Board of Education now requires the subject for pupil teachers. Harmony, which can be made as hard as one pleases, or physics, might be taken as alternatives, the latter being more practical and less abstract than geometry or algebra.

Science, on the other hand, is essential for every woman, not only as training, but as a preparation for domestic

duties and the care of children. For the latter duty, nature study, going on to botany and zoology, is the proper subject; these life sciences are as important in the woman's characteristic activity for the young of the race as are physics and chemistry for men's industries. The latter sciences in a formal sense are not necessary for girls; they should come late in the school course for specialists. General elementary physics may be taught quite early; this should be developed along the lines laid down by Professor Smithells, of Leeds, in his paper "School Training for the Home Duties of Women," read before the British Association at York in 1906. Physics for girls should be the physics of the household. He says (*School World*, September, 1906):—

> I have found it possible, as many others have done, to arrange a course of science lessons in which scientific discipline and scientific method can be inculcated by simple experimental work, based entirely on matters of the household and of daily life; where the information required is truly useful knowledge; and where the minds of the pupils are awakened to the fact that the household is, as I have said before, a laboratory of applied science that may constantly engage the intelligence. Syllabuses of this kind of work have been before the public for a long time, and among the earliest and best are those framed by Mr. Heller. We may call the subject domestic science. It is compounded of physics, chemistry, physiology, bacteriology; but these are hard names for simple things, and I prefer to suppress them.

Such compulsory science in the middle stage of a girls' curriculum would go far to remove the reproach that the existing system of girls' education has not taken sufficient account of the fact that the majority of girls are to be home-makers.

Before a girl leaves school she should have a short compulsory course on the laws of health. It need not be scientific hygiene. It may, perhaps, best be taught authoritatively, as binding law, and as connected with moral and religious training.

Technical subjects will be discussed in Chapter XIII.

Manual training is traditional in girls' education, and rightly so. Sewing is the most important form, and if taught intelligently (the garments being drafted and cut out by pupils), and if eye strain is avoided, is very valuable. It should be compulsory. Drawing is not so essential, but it is very desirable and popular, especially with parents. Other forms of hand training should be used, according to age, opportunities and the type of girl.

Music, too, is traditional for girls, and claims, perhaps, too much of the time of many. Over and over again in later life women are heard to regret bitterly the time they wasted over the piano. This subject is always an extra in a high school. Class-singing, on the other hand, is part of the ordinary curriculum; voice production and sight singing are often well taught, and school singing, after the Harrow fashion, is enjoyed in many schools, some having their own songs.

As a conclusion to this part of the chapter we may again quote Professor Sadler's opinion on the curriculum for girls (Huddersfield Report, p. 49):—

> Much literature and history, good teaching of the mother-tongue and of foreign languages on the best modern methods; provision for instruction in Latin, and in Greek for those girls who might require it; sound training in mathematics and a course of general elementary science with instruction in botany and the laws of health; the development of artistic interests, and of skill in vocal music and in drawing should receive special care. . . . No life is really happy unless there runs through it a vein of deep pleasure in some form of art.

As regards standards of work for a given age, it is all but impossible to give definite statements, since children and schools vary, and must vary, unless the best traditions of English education, freedom and variety are to be driven out. But there are two points at which one can fix a reasonable standard of attainment. One is the matricula-

tion at seventeen plus (sixteen or even earlier for clever girls, eighteen plus for more delicate or backward pupils). This requires English (with or without history), mathematics, at least one language, and two other subjects. The official regulations of the various universities and their examination papers give the standard required (University of London, South Kensington; Joint Matriculation Board of the Northern Universities, Manchester; the University, Birmingham). Oxford and Cambridge have no actual matriculation; the Senior Local with certain subjects is equivalent to, with others is much below, matriculation. The Higher Certificate of the Joint Board of Oxford and Cambridge is in some respects, especially in classics, above the matriculation standard. It is an eighteen years of age examination. These various examinations are now being equated, so that one will serve (*pro tanto*) for the other. Many of the good girls' high schools, especially in the South, take the Higher Certificate in the sixth form. Others prefer to take matriculation in the upper fifth and lower sixth and be free in the sixth to work for college scholarships.

The other point for which one can state a definite standard is at twelve, when pupils should come in with Junior Scholarships from elementary schools. They should have the following attainments:—

English.—To write an essay on an interesting subject, to read clearly from an ordinary book, and write in a good hand an ordinary piece of dictation from a newspaper. They may be required to recite poetry. Grammar should not be required.

Arithmetic.—The ordinary rules, simple and compound, with the weights and measures used in ordinary life; good decimals (not recurring), easy fractions, easy areas.

Geography.—British Isles, and outlines of world geography. Easy map drawing from memory.

General Knowledge.—History stories; leading dates in British history; some lives of great men and women; facts in natural science and practical life.

(This can be tested orally, with a written paper as supplementary.)

Handwork.—Sewing and elementary drawing.

Physical Training and Development.—A fair growth and chest measurement for age of pupil, a test in walking and swimming and in easy singing at sight.

The latter section is most important, and should receive more attention than is the case. Credit should be given in any competition for physical excellence.

We now give details and tables of curricula.

Junior Department, Five to Nine Years of Age.

The three essential groups, English, science, and physical and manual training, may equally divide the school hours, each receiving about a third of the time. At first much of the English time must be given to the teaching of reading. The elements of number and the simpler facts of nature study come to the child in school as an extension of that general knowledge of the world around her which she has been acquiring from the cradle, and so arithmetic and science can be introduced from the beginning. Nature study should be correlated with the instruction of the mother-tongue, especially with composition and reading. Geography, beginning with the study of the child's immediate surroundings, should be taught from the very first, and should receive considerable attention. History at first must take the form of stories and biography. Throughout this stage most careful instruction in English litreature, suited to the age of the children, should be held as of the greatest importance; for much of this poetry may well be used. The grandest monument of English prose, our English Bible, will also be studied in divinity lessons.

That a third of the school time should be given to physical and manual training, drill, calisthenics, drawing, writing, sewing, singing, swimming, is an ideal happily realised in many schools for young children.

The distribution of time when secondary education proper begins at ten years of age may best be seen from the following tables. They are of course only suggestions, but they have been found to work well in practice, if and when the classification into A and B forms (see Chapter III., pp. 43-47) is properly made.

CURRICULUM OF A SECONDARY SCHOOL FOR GIRLS.

Five years' course, 10 to 15, before specialisation begins.

Morning session of 30 to 26 *periods* a week, of varying length, total 18 to 19 hours in class.

Years Forms Ages	I. Lower II. 10-11.	II. Upper II. 11-12.	III. Upper III. 12-13.	IV. Lower IV. 13-14.	V. Upper IV. 14-15.
Divinity	3	3	2	2	2
English	5	5	4	3	3
Geography } Correlated	2	2	1	2	1
History	1	2	2	2	2
Arithmetic	5	4	2	2	1
Geometry } Correlated	—	1	2	2	2
Algebra	—	—	2	2	2
French	5	5	3	4	3
Latin or German	—	—	5	4	4
Nature Study and Biology	1	—	2	—	2
General Elementary Science	—	2	—	2	2
Sewing	2	1	Afternoon Work: Compulsory in One Year		
Drawing	1	2	2	—	1
Singing	2	1	Afternoon Work: Voluntary		
Gymnastics Games	3	2 Voluntary in Afternoons	1	2	1
Total	30	30	28	27	26

If less time is given to a subject already begun, or it is dropped for the year, care should be taken to work it in as far as possible with other subjects.

Drawing should be correlated with science. Gymnastic periods may be taken for occasional rest by older girls. Voluntary extra gymnastics in afternoons.

CORRESPONDING COURSE FOR B FORMS.

No Latin and physics, very little geometry and algebra. More English, handwork and physical training than A Forms.

Years . . / Forms . .	I. Lower II. (as A Forms).	II. II. B.	III. III. B.	IV. Lower IV. B.	V. Upper IV. B.
Divinity . .	3	3	2	2	2
English (Correlated)	5	5	5	5 (3)	4 (3)
Geography (Correlated)	2	2	2	2	2
History (Correlated)	1	2	2	2	2
Arithmetic .	5	4	5	3	2
Geometry . .	—	—	—	2	2
Algebra . .	—	—	—	—	2
French . .	5	5	5	5 (3)	4
German . .	—	—	—	(5)	(4)
Nature Study .	1	2	2	2	—
Domestic Science	—	—	—	2	2
Drawing . .	1	2	2	—	2 (0)
Sewing . .	2	1 Afternoon		Work: Voluntary	
Singing . .	2	1	1 Afternoon	Work:	Voluntary
Gymnastics .	3	3	2	2 (1)	2 (1)
Games .			Afternoons: Voluntary		
Total . .	30	30	28	27	26

Drawing correlated with nature study.
Gymnastic periods may be taken for rest.
In fourth and fifth years periods bracketed allow for optional German.

It will be noticed that in the year when a new language is begun a larger proportion of time is given to it. Physics (General Elementary Science) should be correlated and connected with the mathematical subjects. It is a great advantage if mathematics and physics can be taken by the same teacher. The correlation of English, history and geography means that these almost form one subject, and the pupil's energies are not scattered, but concentrated. Only in this way can these subjects do their work in training the mind and helping to form the "circle of ideas".

Middle School Curriculum.

For girls whose secondary education is to begin at twelve and last till sixteen the subjoined table is suggested; it is found in practice that the first three years of such a curriculum can be fitted into the years III., IV. and V. in the former tables; the fourth year, being one of specialisaton, must be specially provided for.

Professor Sadler, writing of the middle school, which prepares for home life, business and elementary school teaching, states in his Sheffield Report (p. 33):—

> These girls should all have a thorough good training in English; they should have a sound training in mathematics; their foreign language, taught on modern lines but with great stress on grammatical accuracy, should be French (or, if thought well, German); and probably the best choice of scientific subjects would be botany and hygiene. Vocal music, drawing and the arts of home life should receive special attention. In girls' education there should be a strong artistic element. They should be taught to love and admire beautiful things, beautiful characters and beautiful literature.

Specialisation.

At fifteen some degree of specialisation may begin, especially the study of a third language, German or Greek. The former is much easier after Latin has been studied, since its real difficulties are grammatical. Chemistry should never be begun till this stage. Nature study or biology may now be differentiated into botany and zoology. Girls who take to languages will have to give up science at this point, and those who take to science keep on in general only one language, which should be German. Some girls will choose their optional subjects so as not to make any definite decision yet. The question of options at this stage needs very careful consideration on

MIDDLE SCHOOL CURRICULUM FOR GIRLS.

Twenty-eight lessons per week, not including Religious Instruction and Physical Training.
A short afternoon session and comparatively little homework assumed.

1st Year. Age 12 to 13.	2nd Year. Age 13 to 14.	3rd Year. Age 14 to 15.	4th Year. Age 15 to 16.		
HUMANITIES. History . . 2 Geography . 2 Literature . 2 Composition, Grammar, Reading, etc. } 4	Same as 1st year.	History . . . 2 Geography . . . 1 Literature and Composition . . 3 [Extra English, 4.]	History . . . . . 2 Geography . . . . . 1 or 2 Literature and Composition . . . . . 3 [Extra English, 3.]		
LANGUAGES. French . . 5	Same as 1st year.	French . . . 4 German *or* Extra English 4	French . . . . . 3 or 4 German *or* Extra English and French 4		
SCIENCE. Arithmetic and Elementary Algebra . . 4 Elementary Physics . 2 Nature Study . 2	Arithmetic . 4 Geometry . 2 Nature Study . 2	Arithmetic and Mathematics . . . 5 Science . . . 4	DOMESTIC ARTS COURSE. Domestic Science 2 Arithmetic . . 2 Hygiene . . 2	BUSINESS COURSE. Arithmetic . . 3 Knowledge of Wares . . 2	INTENDING PUPIL TEACHERS' COURSE. Arithmetic and Mathematics 7 Science . . 3
OTHER SUBJECTS. Sewing . . 2 Drawing . . 2 Singing . . 1	Sewing . . 2 Drawing. . 2 Singing . . 1	Sewing and Cookery *or* Commercial Subjects } 3 Art 2	Cookery and Household Management . 7 Art . . . 2	Book-keeping, Correspondence, etc., etc. . . 7 Art . . . 2	Geography . 1 Sewing . . 2 Drawing . . 2

the part of the girl, her teachers and her parents; the matter should be gone into and finally settled after an interview with the head mistress.[1] It will be at this stage sometimes that a girl will enter the technical departments (see Chapter XIII.) and begin a special course in the domestic arts, etc., etc.

For girls who remain at school to the matriculation standard or later, the alternate courses in the following tables are suggested. They represent what has actually been carried on for some years in the Manchester High School for Girls; this scheme has been found so successful that it will probably remain, though the difficulty of arranging the time-tables for the various options is considerable, and the amount of teaching required costly in proportion, since the divisions for some subjects are small. It will be seen there are at least eight options. Most schools would not allow all these, either on the theoretical ground (*e.g.* they might make one science subject or Latin compulsory) or on the practical ground of cost. The best courses educationally are I. (*a*), II. (*a*), III. (*a*). Some schools warmly favour the option, Latin, chemistry, French. It has to us the fault of leading nowhere, neither to arts, science nor the teaching of younger pupils. It will probably be forbidden in the Manchester High School, as will be French, biology, geography in section III. Clearly each school must have its own system of elective courses in higher forms.

[1] "The elective system is much more costly than the prescribed; but it is also so much more effective for all educational purposes, whether mental or moral, that it advances steadily in all the faculties of arts and sciences, and never takes a backward step" (President Eliot of Harvard).

HIGHER SECONDARY ELECTIVE COURSES: SPECIALISATION BEGUN.

For Matriculation, two to three years, 15 to 17 and 18, according to Ability and Progress of Pupil.

No. of Weekly Lessons . .	Compulsory Subjects. 4.	5 to 6.	Optional Subjects. 4.	4 to 5.	4.	Remarks. Total, 22 + Private Reading.
I. (*a*) For Arts pupils, leading to B.A. Degree.	English Literature and History.	Mathematics, Geometry, Algebra, Arithmetic.	French.	Latin.	Geography, including Science Side of Subject.	For General Culture.
(*b*) ,,	,,	,,	French.	Latin.	German.	For Modern Language and Music Students.
(*c*) ,,	,,	,,	French.	Latin.	Greek.	For Classical Students.
II. For Science pupils, leading to B.Sc. Degree.	English Literature and History.	Mathematics, Geometry, Algebra, Arithmetic.	One language, preferably German.	Chemistry.	Biology or Physics.	French to be dropped at 15. Girls generally take Biology, *i.e.* Botany and Zoology.
III. For intending Primary or Junior Forms Teachers.	English Literature and History.	Mathematics, Geometry, Algebra, Arithmetic.	Latin or French.	Chemistry or Biology.	Geography.	Abler girls take Latin: the second option very easy and not ideal.
IV. For Commerce, or weak students in Arts or Science.	English Literature and History.	Mathematics, Geometry, Algebra, Arithmetic.	French.	German.	Geography.	An easy option but useful.

For Technical Department, see Chapter XIII.

POST-MATRICULATION. HIGHEST COURSE AT EIGHTEEN, NINETEEN YEARS OF AGE, IN SIXTH FORM PREPARING FOR COLLEGE SCHOLARSHIPS.

English still Compulsory.

	Principal Studies.	Subsidiary Studies.
I.	Latin and Greek.	History or a Modern Language.
II.	Latin and Mathematics.	Greek or French.
III.	History or Literature.	Latin and a Modern Language.
IV.	Modern Languages.	Latin Compulsory.
V.	Mathematics.	Science or History.
VI.	Science.	Mathematics, German.

CHAPTER VIII.

METHOD.

METHOD means how one teaches a subject; on this whole books have been written, and the problems are not yet solved; problems in the art of training the elusive and mysterious entity we call a mind, and that yet more indeterminate potential we call a character. Of late years teachers of particular subjects have formed special associations to study the best methods of teaching. The first of these was the Mathematical Association, formed in 1894 out of societies for the improvement of the teaching of geometry and elementary mathematics dating as far back as 1871. A Modern Languages Association was next formed, which publishes periodical magazines. To the same purpose, of late years, Classical, Historical and English Associations have been established, whose work deals generally with method. The Classical Association has published three reports.[1] The Historical Association is collecting leaflets and pamphlets. Pedagogic works on method can be found in any library. *Lectures on Teaching*, by J. G. Fitch, was one of the first of these and is still current. *Principles of Class Teaching*, by Professor J. J. Findlay, is very useful: hints are also to be found in *The Public Schools from Within*, 1906.[2] Salmon's *Art of Teaching* (Longmans) and Collar and Crook's *School Management* are helpful with younger classes: these are written mainly for elementary teaching. Considering that

[1] *Proceedings of Classical Association.* John Murray.
[2] See also Raymont, *Principles of Education*, chaps. viii. and xii.

so much has been written and is being written on the subject, one can do but little in these pages; there are, however, some general statements which may be briefly discussed.

There are two broad types of method—one in which the pupil does the work and the teacher guides, and the other in which the teacher does the work and the pupil listens and follows. The best method is found in a combination of the two. The first is, on the whole, the old-fashioned way, when pupils learnt lessons and said them to a mistress, (one has even heard of an inch or two inches of a history text-book being set to learn by heart). They did French exercises, or sums, and copied maps and the like. All this had its merits; the aim of all who are teaching indeed is, that the pupil should learn to work alone with success and even with joy. In America the "recitation" method strikes one as of this type; the pupils do most of the work, making long statements from text-books, the teacher's office being to guide and question. This is very useful on occasion with English girls.

Of the other type of method, it has been said in not undeserved satire, "That the teacher learns the lessons and says them to the girls". This has been found to obtain in the high schools, but is not as common as it was. It means that the teacher got up a subject and carefully prepared a lecture, and gave this to the class, who followed and took notes, and, let us hope, occasionally asked questions. This exposition undoubtedly has its value, and with senior girls in certain subjects is, if used and not abused, the proper method. The teacher, by going over a subject first, stimulates the girls and gives them ideas. The truth lies in a combination adapted to the particular subject. One may, in going from class to class in a school, see a dozen different methods employed, all with propriety. In an algebra

lesson the girls may be working from their text-books, while the teacher walks round, supervises, and gives occasional help; the next form may be debating on the characters in a play of Shakespeare, the mistress acting as chairman; the third class may be listening, with eyes intent on the teacher, to an admirable exposition of the English manor, the teacher questioning occasionally to help to clear up difficult points, and illustrating on the blackboard with diagrams in coloured chalk. In the laboratory and in the library girls will be working alone with very little supervision; one may come next to beginners in German, taught on the "New" method, where the teacher is acting, and giving the German phrases for her actions, which the girls repeat while they imitate the action. The most successful kind of lesson for an inspector to listen to is one of *discovery*, where the class and the teacher are solving some problem, say in geography, and by clear questioning and an occasional stimulating hint, the teacher leads the class to discover for themselves, *e.g.* Why London is where it is, or what is the trade between Canada and Manchester. The same kind of thing may be done in Latin, grammar, or geometry.

All these different ways of teaching have their value; underlying them are certain principles. The chief of these is Interest; to arouse the interest of the pupil is the way to get work done. It seems that just as one can shape hot iron and not cold, so one can teach a class that cares, and make no impression on one that is indifferent. Another principle is that a lesson must have a structure, must be planned to serve an end. The four steps of the followers of Herbart[1] give one of these forms of structure; briefly, one may say that a lesson should have a beginning, in which the way is prepared, a middle in which the new

[1] See Findlay's *Principles of Class Teaching*.

matter is presented and worked out, and an end, in which an application is made of the knowledge or skill. The beginning bears on the well-known principle: "From the known to the unknown"; as H. L. Withers puts it: "Begin at the boys' end; you and your pupils are collaborators in discovery".

A fourth principle is that each lesson should give pupils a definite increase in faculty or knowledge; they should be further on at the close than they were when the lesson began.

A common error in method is to develop a subject logically and not psychologically as it grows in the mind. One should not begin with a definition and a rule, but begin with examples, and get the class to find out the rule and the definition. The study of the history of a subject will often help one to avoid this error. Geography should begin, not with a definition of the globe, but with a plan of the classroom and the way to school. Indeed, teachers have erred seriously in the past, especially with young children, in forcing on them logical method instead of allowing their minds to develop naturally over a subject. What does the young child really like? He cares for things, not words. The abstract conception of grammar, mathematics and political science, even of poetry; the subjunctive mood, the law of indices, the feudal system, the cadence of the hexameter, the philosophy of the beautiful are nought to him; they strike no responsive chord in his mind, or, which is a better metaphor, are as the strong meat of manhood to the stomach of a little child. He cares for his animals, his sand-building on the sea-shore, his mud-pies in the gutter, his little garden where he pulls up the plants to see how they are getting on, his toy engine where he wants to see the wheels go round, the brook where he turns the stream with his stone barrier, or floats his chip boats in the summer wind, the bow and

arrows, the hunting and the fishing, the craft of wood and river and sandy shore. "'Twas the manner of primitive man." All this is the material his growing mind naturally seeks after. He has to learn the world about him, as his forefathers had, ages and ages ago, to learn to live in this fascinating, aggravating, insistent, natural world. And we wise teachers shut it all out, and put our children down at little desks within four walls, to learn out of books, and trifle with pens and paper!

One of the most vigorous modern movements in primary education, begun by Professor Dewey at the University at Chicago in the Practising School of the Education Department there, is the endeavour to teach the young child by leading it through some of the experiences of the race, the occupations of the farm, camping out, nomadic character and discoveries, etc.[1] These methods are at present being brought experimentally into the Practising School of the Education Department of the University of Manchester.

In the years of secondary school life science and handwork will develop these faculties of discovery and self-expression.

One of the chief duties of secondary school method is to give children formal work, to teach them to tolerate drudgery and to "get up" the difficult parts of a subject.

A distinguished teacher coming back as professor after ten years' absence from the university remarked to a tutor, "It seems to me now that the undergraduates expect others to do all the work for them and simply stand like pitchers, waiting to be filled". "Yes," replied the tutor, "only they expect the teacher to take the pitcher lid off first." Will this indulgent method of education train up men and women strong to cope with the difficulties of life? Over-indulgence, too careful shielding from difficulties and disappointments, interfere with a vigorous growth and tend to produce that kind of softness and indolence of character so well described by the

[1] See *The School and the Child.*

French word *mollesse*. Life must be real and simple, its difficulties, temptations and disappointments frankly and bravely met, its advantages and pleasures thankfully enjoyed. There should be no foolish pity for a child merely because its lessons are hard, rather an attempt to stimulate the child to find pleasure in facing and surmounting difficulties. We see far too much done nowadays to make the lessons, at least of the little ones, seem like play, and at every step all possible difficulties are smoothed out of the way of the learner. We must remember that by education we do not mean a process by which a child is supplied with such an amount of useful information as is considered sufficient to carry it through life. True education is the training of all the faculties of the mind in such a manner as to make it an efficient instrument for any task that may be given it in after life.

The above extract is taken from an article of the *Parents' Review*, on "Hardness in Education," by Mrs. Creighton.

Dr. Arthur Sidgwick says:—

The thorough getting up of a limited subject—the complete mastery of the relevant details—is a very valuable power; it ought to be insisted on in schools; every boy ought to have chance to acquire it. If it was universally insisted on (where possible), the vast mass of the world's administration in high places and low places alike would be incomparably better done. The knowledge must be acquired, *must* be understood in all subjects, and it *must* be tested. The historical or scientific facts (and inferences); the linguistic accidence, syntax and idiom; the mathematical principles and methods—these must be known and known exactly, and understood, remembered, and made available at command for use.

Another duty in a girls' school is to teach the pupils how to use books. To-day, excellent text-books in all subjects are published, and pupils may well be left to work up a good deal by themselves. They need, however, a library as well as their own books, where big dictionaries and standard historical, geographical and scientific works can be found; these should include some French books,

not only literature for modern language studies, but history, etc. The older girls should be free to work in the library, the shelves being open during school hours, and to take books home under proper regulations; they will be found to appreciate such privileges. Young pupils should be able to consult the school librarian at fixed times, and get books through her, either study books or stories for recreative reading. Much can be done to encourage girls to read the classics, Thackeray, Scott, Jane Austen, Stevenson, etc., through the school library.

We must now consider the proper place of written work in schools; as a rule with girls there is too much. Written work should never be set except with a definite and particular purpose, or, which is the same thing, the teacher should never set written work without saying, "Can the class possibly do without this—can the work be done any other way?" The reasons for this are obvious—the burden on the pupil, and the burden on the teacher. Why, then, must we have written work? For the pupil's case we cannot seek a better formula than Bacon's "Reading maketh a full man, conference a ready man, and writing an exact man". It is largely because writing makes an *exact* man that we have so much of note-taking, and so much of "things written out" in our classes. The second reason for written work is one which applies to the teacher. In dealing with large classes the written paper furnishes the only means of really getting at the pupil's mind, of finding out what she can do, how much she has understood, and where her difficulties are.

Essays must as a rule be written, but writing which does not tend to exactitude of thought, but merely to emotional vagueness, is undesirable. It is not that we would condemn the emotional and dramatic elements in the teaching of the humanities. But there is no end served by making girls write about these things.

Oral work is as a rule somewhat neglected in girls' high schools; it takes time, and though girls are not as bad as boys about speaking out, they are often self-conscious as well as inarticulate. Milton felt the difficulty:—

> We Englishmen, being far northerly, do not open our mouths to the cold air wide enough to grace a southern tongue; but are observed by all other nations to speak exceeding close and inward.

Pupils need training in how to speak, which should become part of their English work. Simultaneous repetition and answering is disapproved by inspectors and text-books on method; we think they are wrong. In the smaller classes of secondary schools it is easy for a teacher to detect a faulty individual, and repetition in chorus is an effective way of overcoming the unwillingness of the ordinary girl to speak up. The insistence on a complete sentence for each answer is also, we believe, a mistake; it is unnatural and slow.

The blackboard is rarely used sufficiently in English schools, often because the blackboard surface is very limited. In America half a class will be set to work algebra (say) simultaneously on the blackboard, or a teacher will leave diagrams and maps from one lesson to another; the appeal to the eye as well as to the ear is a great help to some pupils who visualise what is in their minds. The value of drawing in explanation is very great. Secondary teachers should all be able to draw, but a bad drawing is better than none at all. As drawing becomes, however, a subject of general education, it will be more used as a method. The teachers who are happily ambidexter have a great advantage in blackboard demonstration; they can draw or write with two colours of chalk at once.

Oral repetition of a lesson learnt can be saved by short written examination questions, answered by a word or two and corrected in class. This is the best method of

seeing that the homework has been properly learnt. We shall deal with the whole subject of homework in Chapter X.

We may say here that any method which involves much homework for pupils under fifteen is radically wrong. Unfortunately, girls do not neglect homework or revolt at it as boys do, and so mistresses should use methods which lead to a minimum of written homework. Reading and learning by heart are not so bad; indeed, girls to-day in good schools often do not have enough learning by heart.

For the method of teaching particular subjects references must be made to the books mentioned at the beginning of this chapter; but it is possible to say some thing briefly on the chief subjects of school instruction.

In classics excellent methods have been elaborated by generations of teachers since the Renaissance. Roger Ascham's Translation and Retranslation is still approved by many competent teachers. Of late, much has been done by pictures and models to make all the teaching of Latin more alive. The question of the use of spoken Latin has been brought to the front by the success of the new methods in modern languages. Naturally, if pupils learn that Latin once was a living language, they take more interest in it. There is no reason, except bad teaching, why Latin should not be a living language once more —a far better medium of international communication than any artificial invention, since every cultivated person in Western Europe must learn Latin. We only need good methods of teaching it to secure to us a universal language.

In modern languages the success of the "New," "Reform" or "Natural Method" which comes from Germany has been extraordinary. It was brought before English people about ten years ago, and has been introduced into many schools.[1]

[1] See Miss Brebner's book, *The Teaching of Modern Languages in Germany* and Cloudesley Brereton, *The Teaching of Languages* (Blackie & Son, London, 1893).

It is essentially the application to the teaching of a foreign tongue of the method by which the child learns his mother tongue; that is, not translation, but the association of a word with a thing or action. The lessons are given from the beginning in the new language, and the grammar is learnt in the way it is learnt by natives. It is found, however, that, to save time and secure accuracy and attention, explanations must sometimes be given in English. In this method composition in the new language is given from the beginning, then comes reading; translation, except for the requirements of an examination, would never be taught at all. This method has been in use in the Manchester High School for nine years; we find it rouses the interest of the pupils, who make rapid progress, especially in understanding what is said to them in the foreign tongue; grammar, though not faultless (the grammar of a school girl never is), is better done than in the old way. The method requires much better teachers, who should be paid on a scale that will allow them to visit France or Germany every long vacation.

In mathematics reform methods have also been introduced of late years; they are due principally to engineering professors. A good account is given of the movement in a chapter on mathematics by Mr. J. G. Garstang in *The Public Schools from Within.* Its characteristics are the abandonment of Euclid, the use of graphs in algebra and arithmetic, and the use of mathematical instruments. The reform is as yet tentative, and there is much difference of opinion on its results. Arithmetic needs to be made much more practical in schools and connected much more with real life. A great deal that is in the text-books should be thrown overboard. The adoption of the Metric System is, of course, the reform which would save the schools at least two years' arithmetic teaching.

In science the greatest authorities have advocated and

explained particular methods of teaching: every one recognises that science in schools, to be any good, must be experimental; the pupils must observe and investigate for themselves. At the same time, it is found practically that the heuristic method is not wholly successful under ordinary conditions. The teacher must give the pupil results, and interest them in the great discoveries and principles of science which they cannot entirely discover for themselves. As we have said in the previous chapter, the method of teaching general elementary science to girls should be to connect it with household matters: the density of milk, the temperature of frying fat, the composition of soap and soda, and such like common things.

Geography in schools, too, has been revolutionised in the last ten years, largely through the influence of two university teachers, Mackinder and Herbertson. They have shown us how to make it interesting, related to life, and an instrument for cultivating the intelligence. It has now become a very valuable part of the curriculum; popular with the girls, useful to the citizen, and widening to the mind of the human being who studies it.

English in girls' schools is generally taught well; literature is the centre of the work, not grammar. Poetry, especially dramatic poetry in the form of Shakespeare's plays, is usually chosen, some forms reading three plays a year; selections of lyrics are also studied with zeal and success; Longfellow and Scott are set for younger pupils, ten to thirteen, Milton and Wordsworth to those of fifteen years of age and over. There is no royal road to teaching composition; the best way is to study and love good literature: indeed, appreciation of literature and the power of writing in English are not so much taught as caught. It is the "torch in flame" that the teacher hands on to the pupil. Definite grammar lessons are a mistake. The authority of Dr. Arthur Sidgwick is surely enough:—

Definite grammar lessons in English seem to me on the whole—considering the short time available generally for the whole subject of English—rather a mistake. In every secondary school every pupil learns some foreign language, French, German or Latin; and instruction in grammar is so much more profitable if the lesson is on a foreign (and more inflected) tongue than on English, where the inflexions have mostly disappeared, that I feel strongly the force of this argument: that *in the mother-tongue*, with a splendid literature to study, it is a great pity to spend on the scientific and less stimulating part of the field the time (always too short) which is badly wanted for the more cultivating and inspiring side of the work.

With regard to *sentence analysis*, I think the exercise itself is, at a right stage, a profitable one. The technical terms belonging to universal grammar are not numerous, and are, as a fact, soon mastered by the average pupil.

On no school subject, except Holy Scripture, has the influence of examinations been more harmful than to the teaching of literature. It directly encourages the bad methods and represses the good. We might note here that pedagogically the same principles apply to the teaching of Scripture as to the teaching of literature. This is evident when we remember, that we are then endeavouring to make our pupils understand and love a Book, and what it teaches.

History is said to be one of the most difficult subjects to teach. A teacher of history does not think so; it is really one of the easiest to those who have the temperament for it. One finds history infinitely easier to teach than geometry or arithmetic. Enthusiasm is the one thing needful. Love for the subject, delight in it and in the great drama of human life which it unrolls, sympathy for great causes and for even little men, something of the joy of the ballad-maker in pure story-telling, something of the passion of the poet for noble deeds, something of the strenuous ardour of the statesman for order and progress; these, however feebly, the teacher of history must feel, and if she feels thus her work will be well done. As the pupil catches

the glow of enthusiasm her interest will be aroused and the facts will be learned with little effort, and further (which is of far more importance) the training of the imagination and of the moral sense will be given as it never can be given unless the warmth of emotion kindles teacher and pupil. For this reason the work should be organised on departmental lines—that is, given to one teacher, at least in the upper and upper middle forms—for it is absurd to expect that every member of a staff should care for this particular subject in this special way. A certain amount of the actor's gift, a certain expansiveness and freedom of speech; these, too, are needful and cannot be acquired by every one. Clearly in history the chief work must be done by the teacher; story-telling, exposition, and, for the older pupils, lecturing must be employed more than in other subjects. The teacher, however, must beware of effusiveness, vapouring, *talk*. This must be put down with a stern hand. Like the sister muses of poetry, Clio should be, as Matthew Arnold says,

> young, gay,
> Radiant, adorned outside—a hidden ground
> Of thought and of austerity within.

A rigid syllabus must be drawn up and kept to, week by week, or it may be month by month; some test by oral or written examination must be made of the work of every pupil in the class; dates, genealogical tables, analyses, and charts and diagrams showing the connection and order of events must be worked at and gone over. For this reason as for many others, which every practical teacher knows, a text-book should be used. Older girls will of course have access to the library. An essay once a week or once a fortnight, visits to historical buildings, sites and museums whenever possible, and reference to school and local government, even (if the teacher has tact) to current politics, will be found valuable aids in method. Books on histori-

cal methods are mostly American. The following will be found useful: Mary Sheldon Barnes' *Studies in Historical Method* (Heath, Boston, 1896); G. Stanley Hall, *Methods of Teaching History* (Heath, Boston, 1885); *Study of History*, by the Committee of Seven, American Historical Association (Macmillan, 1899); H. L. Withers and R. Somervell, articles in *Teaching and Organisation* (Longmans, London, 1897); Bourne's *Teaching of History and Civics*, American Teachers' Series (Longmans, New York, 1905), which gives an excellent sketch of how to teach universal history.

Whatever be our method in detail, it is, in general, the contact and influence of mind and soul on mind and soul. We have to open wider horizons, to suggest great thoughts, to sow broadcast seeds of fruitful ideas, even while we are going over the details of our French, geometry, or shorthand. This we have to do, and not leave the other, the detail, undone. For this end, while we give ourselves to our work, we must lead a life of study and experience away from our work. "One helps boys more by living one's own life than by continually trying to live down to theirs," says H. L. Withers, whose words on teaching have perhaps the more force because he has left the world so few of them. The secret of method after all is life; it is to make ourselves better women, that we may be better worth giving.

> Who gives himself, with his alms feeds three:
> Himself, his hungering neighbour, and me.

CHAPTER IX.

DISCIPLINE.

THIS word covers a very large part of what teachers attempt to do in school, and before discussing it in relation to school organisation, it may be well to devote some time to analysing the mass of ideas and associations which have gathered round the phrase. We are familiar enough with the expression "Can she keep order?" used of a new colleague or a young teacher, and the question indeed implies one of the most elementary ideas connected with discipline, the securing of that amount of order and attention to the business in hand requisite for the achievement of class work. This may be called the *negative* side of discipline, namely, that degree of order and attention on the part of pupils necessary for the giving of a lesson, the prevention of disorder and inattention. This is often taken as the whole of the subject, and it is indeed the more important part to the young teacher in training. To treat of it is rather a matter for a lecture on method, and in books on the art of teaching valuable suggestions are to be found as to points of detail which may be of great service to the beginner. Order and attention in class are indeed largely dependent on excellence of method. If the lesson is interesting, and if the pupils are made to do the work themselves, there is little temptation to dreams, play, chatter, or trickery. A teacher who goes into class knowing exactly what is to be done at each stage of the lesson, full of the subject, anxious to meet the pupils, clear up

their difficulties and start them on new work, and who pulls them together by a few quick commands, followed by the questioning or explanation necessary to the subject, will find that the discipline takes care of itself. It is the sleepy, irresolute, frightened, indifferent, fidgety, dull teacher who cannot keep order, or is obliged to keep it by formal punishments and much objurgation. Sometimes, however, through unfavourable external conditions, heat, fatigue, some excitement of school life, or what not, a class may get a little out of hand even with skilled and interesting teaching. The happy brightness and receptiveness is gone; fidgeting, inattention, and incipient disorder appear. It is well then to break off the lesson, and order simultaneous simple actions, at the word of command, such as are involved in getting writing materials, and putting down simultaneously short answers to a few concise questions. An order to stand, for a few minutes simultaneous repetition to time given by the teacher, may serve the same purpose. It is extraordinary what an effect in restoring order the performance of a few simple familiar actions at the word of command may have, especially when such performance is customary. The appeal lies to elements in the mind and body below the level of consciousness, to reactions in lower nerve centres independent of the will through habit; in the formation of those habits of instinctive obedience lies much of the secret of good discipline. A certain amount of drill in opening desks, standing, marching and so forth is, especially in the lower forms, advisable for this reason—it establishes the habit of obedience, a truth which will be dealt with later.

Keeping order in a class is, as we all know, very much a matter of personality. At heart one believes that the power of discipline is born, not made; some people can keep order, and some cannot, and there is an end. But experience proves that this is not the whole truth, though

true it be; teachers do learn to keep order by practice, or by advice and study, and many pass through the phase of inefficiency and struggle so marvellously described by Kipling in his picture of the young subaltern of the story "His Private Honour". But one thing is necessary, the teacher must will to conquer; a firm determination to be obeyed at all costs, to find out somehow, some way of controlling and managing the disorderly class if one dies for it—this generally brings success in the end. The teacher who has no will, no determination, no resolve to make herself felt, has no business in the profession—as well be a painter if colour-blind. Something may however be done by the central school organisation to help the particular teacher. Failure is sometimes the result of bad classification, of allotting a difficult form to the wrong mistress, who might do well with a class of another age. The brilliant young graduate fresh from college will be appreciated and followed by a bright, eager, intellectual class, and she will be well able to control their excitement or playfulness; but to give such a one the heavy, idle, lawless, even disorderly battalions of the lower fourth is to court failure. These want a strong hand and a definite method, a certain kind of personality that can hit hard, and will stand no nonsense. Thus organisation and classification are all important; a class mixed of bright young ones and heavy dull older pupils cannot possibly go right; the most skilful teacher can hardly make such incompatible elements work well together.

So long as the teacher is really in command, is adequate to the situation, there may well be a more informal order than would have satisfied the older type of teachers. Indeed the true heuristic, inquiring method of teaching is incompatible with formal discipline in the classroom. Rows of children sitting upright and regular, with their eyes all fixed on the teacher, who is pouring information

at and over them, may look like good discipline—may even *be* good discipline of a sort—but it is bad teaching.

Right here, as our cousins would say, comes the paradox of class discipline: if the learners are working for themselves, full of inquiry, interest, zeal, questioning the teacher, their minds following, perhaps even outrunning the work of the class, they cannot present that appearance of uniformity, calm, quiet, order which we associate with the phrase. Yet they must be under control, attentive, ready to answer at once to a command, or the work cannot be done. The solution of this paradox the teacher must find for himself; that it is to be found experience will testify. One may, for example, see a practical physics class working in groups, each at a set of apparatus, allowed to talk, but talking only over the work, some entering records, some using the Bunsen, some walking about the room to fetch material, some eagerly questioning the teacher—there is noise, movement, apparent confusion—but there may be excellent order and good discipline, which becomes at once evident when at the sound of a bell the noise stops, the class listens attentively to a statement of home work, and files out regularly at the word of command to the next lesson. To secure this is harder than to carry out successfully the old-fashioned mechanical routine of class-work; it needs endless watchfulness, care, inexhaustible energy—but it can be done. The problem is indeed the same as the problem of modern warfare. The old-fashioned methods of frontal attack by masses of men, moving uniformly and regularly shoulder to shoulder as on the parade ground, are now impossible against modern artillery and rifles. Our soldiers have to learn to advance in small groups, in loose order, utilising every bit of cover, each man thinking for himself, acting as his own officer, deprived of the moral support that comes from the near co-operation of his fellows, and the habit of in-

stinctive obedience. So our teachers must abandon the old methods of mechanical formalism and routine, giving a rule, ordering so many sums or sentences to be done on that model, and thus preserving an external appearance of absolute order, silence and regularity; they must work with the class, questioning and being questioned, arousing interest, giving illustrations, it may be even breaking up the classes into sections working by themselves on the black-boards or with one another. Such a class may seem disorderly, but it is not: the disorder is the movement of life, of thought, of active energy, it is not inattention or idleness. But the teacher has to work harder, and what is even more important, must be better than was sufficient for the old type of discipline. There must be, too, a sympathetic chief who does not demand that mechanical calm of routine as a proof of good discipline. Clearly, too, a large class cannot be controlled in this way; in practical work, fifteen or eighteen per teacher, in languages or mathematics twenty-five to thirty per teacher should be the maximum. English subjects do not lend themselves so well to the heuristic method, and in history one can teach thirty-five to forty, if they be older pupils. But at forty the enforcement of mechanical discipline becomes necessary, and the class ideal disappears.

So much for the keeping of order in class, the negative side of discipline, *i.e.* the prevention of that degree of disorder which hinders work. Again and again in this discussion deeper parts of the subject have been touched on, which may now be considered, if only in outline. In other words, we shall analyse the positive side of discipline, what it does positively, not merely what it presents; its effect on character, its value on training, apart from its necessity as the means to secure the performance of lessons.

First comes the question, Has it such a value? General

opinion in England would say yes; but the degree of importance we should attribute to this agent in the formation of character, in the training of the individual, would vary with the speaker. One section would say that the influence of school discipline is the most important element in the value of school life; that boys, especially, do not go to school to get instruction, knowledge, or even taste or culture, but to be "licked into shape," and that the value of English public school education more particularly is in the effect of the discipline and life, rather than the teaching and the studies. There is undoubtedly truth in this, and a truth not likely to be forgotten; it is indeed at present the most urgent task, as our public men continually remind us, to insist on the value and necessity of boys learning something at school in the realms of knowledge and faculty. But as far as girls are concerned the value of this side of school training is often not recognised, not only by parents, but even by teachers—perhaps because the teachers have not been under its influence themselves. Those who have been brought up under the discipline of a great girls' school, even in years so long past that modern methods of teaching could not by any possibility have found place there, know well enough how valuable such a training is, especially to women, as counteracting some of the dangers incident to the nature and position of girls and women in social life. Those who have had this training are indeed glad to have the opportunity of bearing witness to the power and influence for good on character and work in later life, of even an incomplete and transitional system of public school discipline, a system which taught us that work must be done, whether we were ill or well, that our individual fancies and needs must be subordinated to the good of the whole community, that we must do what we were told whether we agreed with it or not, that we must be accurate, tidy

and business-like or suffer for the failure—and suffer we did—that any one of us was of very little importance or value compared with the success and the well-being of the great organisation to which we had the honour to belong. Now this is of course not by any means the whole of duty and truth for a girl in school, or a woman in the tide of life; but these are very valuable lessons, especially to the clever girl, the wealthy girl, the delicate girl, the erratic eccentric girl, the girl of energy, character and capacity, who makes, if she is properly trained, a very useful woman by-and-by.

It is perhaps the more needful to speak to-day of the value of such discipline in school, because there is a reaction against it in the home and in social life, due to the general disturbance and upheaval in matters of philosophy, religion, and thought characteristic of our century. We who live now see the value both of order and of freedom; we recognise the ideals of self-government, individualism, even anarchy, and at the same time we admire and approach conceptions of the State, the community, and the subordination of the individual to the welfare of the whole social organism which recall the communism of Sparta, the despotism of Rome, the socialism of the Middle Ages, and the militarism of Prussia. In school, more especially, we try to care for the particular pupil—and this, indeed, is all-important—and yet we must not forget that a large part of the training of that pupil is to learn to forget herself, to live for others, to be a citizen and a patriot. Just at present, the home tends to be anarchical, the old severe type of family organisation is passing away: the young married people of our generation seek to be the friends of their children, not fearful rulers, wielders of terror and awe. This makes it at once more essential and more difficult for the schools to provide the positive training in character which school dis-

cipline can furnish—more essential, for how else are the children to get it? and more difficult, because they have never had it before, and because the home authorities do not always agree with those of the school. It is, however, often the case that troublesome children at home are perfectly good at school, for reasons we shall note presently, and that the parents are often grateful to the teachers for enforcing that order, regularity, and law which might break and interrupt the affectionate friendliness and love of the family circle. Many parents indeed deliberately state that it is the teacher's business, especially in boarding schools, to make a girl, for example, neat and orderly. "I wish to be my daughter's friend," says a mother, "not to be always scolding her about small details of daily habit; those things she must learn at school."

So much for the value of this school discipline; we may then ask, in what do its elements consist? Every one would doubtless give his own analysis. The subject may perhaps be best treated under the three following heads: accuracy, obedience, solidarity. The first is the simplest and easiest; the word accuracy is intended here to include punctuality, neatness and order in details, such matters as giving in lessons at the proper time, dating all papers, keeping lockers tidy, bringing notes after absence, care about books and other property, and so forth. Each school has its own ways in such things, and some spend more effort on them than others. Clearly the acquisition of methodical business-like habits is worth striving for in school, especially for girls, whose household duties in later life absolutely demand such qualities for their efficient performance, and who have little opportunity of acquiring such habits except at school. There is a disciplinary effect too in requiring uniformity and accuracy in matters of detail, or why is so much time and care given in the army and navy to precision in details of dress, kit, neatness and so on? No one

troubles about these things on active service, but they are felt to be worth consideration in training, trifles though any one of them be.

The second element is the most important in discipline, is implied indeed in the ordinary connotation of the phrase —obedience. It is no small thing to learn to do what one is told, nor is it a power that comes naturally to all. Some races may perhaps be too docile, too easily submissive ; but English people err on the other side, Northern English above all, and so they need the more in school to be trained in this essential element of discipline. Here, above all, one must never let a case slip, never let a pupil disobey an order without feeling the consequences. It is far better not to give the order at all if one cannot be sure of seeing it carried out, and a proved case of clear disobedience or insubordination should always be severely dealt with, and there will then be very few such cases.

The third element in the value of discipline has no proper name in English, and that adopted from the French, *solidarity*, by which it may be described has indeed a more general meaning. But we know the thing well enough ; the power of acting together, of doing things as a whole community, of subordinating the individual to the welfare of the whole. One side of it we call public spirit, and we are familiar with its exercise in special departments of life, as citizenship, philanthropy, public spirit in reference to a college, regiment, trades union, gild or profession.

Clearly school discipline can do much to develop this faculty in character, especially in the life of a great school with a vigorous tradition. For girls such is often the only opportunity of learning public spirit, and girls and women are as a rule deficient in this respect, just as they are richer than their brothers in the affectionate, unselfish, and docile elements of character. A girl will do a thing to please her

teacher; she has to be taught to do it for the honour of the school. The value of games and other forms of corporate action, such as concerts and plays, in this direction is obvious, and their effect in promoting public spirit by teaching solidarity is the great reason for their place in school life.

We have now to consider by what organisation these valuable elements in the training of character are to be secured. It is not necessary to enter into details in this relation, as the circumstances of particular schools differ so much—a head master, for instance, spends much of his time seeing that every boy keeps up to a reasonable standard of work; a head mistress may spend as much energy in trying to prevent overwork, both among girls and teachers. But one may suggest a few principles that must be the same for all schools.

First, this positive effect of discipline, this training which it gives, must be largely the work of the central authority, not only in acting as a court of appeal from the ordinary form teacher, but by direct influence. It is in matters where the school acts as a whole that the effect of this discipline is given—in all assemblies, whether daily, as for prayers, or publicly, as on occasions of prize giving, open days, and the like. The rehearsals for such functions are excellent opportunities for practising both obedience and solidarity. Rising and sitting down in class, opening desks, moving about the building, passing up and down stairs, and so forth, are also occasions for the daily regular teaching of the habit of obedience to the word of command and of subordinating the desires of the individual—as in a matter like stopping and talking on the stairs—for the good of the community.

The means to this work of enforcing discipline may be classified under three headings:—

First, adherence to rules.—Every properly organised

school has its set of rules, carefully drawn up, discussed if necessary and revised from time to time by meetings of teachers and prefects, but carried out and enforced rigorously and inevitably as long as they are rules. A whole chapter could be devoted to this subject, but any ordinary essay or study on law in the abstract, and on principles of government applies, *mutatis mutandis*, to school law. The chief point is to be sure that no one escapes, that infractions of rules are not passed over, that the evil of breach of law is dealt with in its early stage. The worst type of pupil to deal with is she who has been demoralised by successful disobedience or disorder—a case more difficult with girls than boys, because the more violent methods open to men are barred to women teachers, and because the home sympathises less with the naughty boy than with the naughty girl. The most difficult practical question in this section of the subject, adherence to rules, arises, as in law generally, with exemptions and excuses. What are the proper limits of dispensing power—when is *summa jus*, *summa injuria?* Clearly the more feeling one has for the individual and the more sympathetic and careful one is the greater is the danger of laxity, of allowing too many exemptions and exceptions, of considering the individual so much that the value of the uniformity, the inevitableness of discipline disappears. A difficult example is that of whether allowance of marks should be made for illness or not, and there is something to be said on both sides.

The second means to the achievement of discipline is the weight of numbers, which in a large school is considerable. It takes a very bold pupil not to be cowed to some extent by the sense of her own personal insignificance among so many, by the large building, the complex organisation, the loss of personality and individuality of one as compared with all the multitudes of others. The teacher may remark on occasion: "Who is Mary Smith

that this great machine should be disturbed for her convenience?" and the argument never fails. It is a very good thing, especially for a clever, a pretty, or a wealthy girl to feel this weight of numbers, and many parents are wise enough to see the point, and send their exceptional girl to a large school, where, as they say, she finds her level.

Thirdly, we have, as resulting from these two agents, adherence to rules and weight of numbers, the principle that the law is no respecter of persons, which helps us far more than we realise, especially with the stronger and more spirited characters. What a strong-willed girl hates is interference with her personal will, her personal initiative; she does not mind keeping to rules, especially sensible rules, laid down beforehand, within which her activity is free to exercise itself freely. What she cannot stand is personal caprice, interference, petty tyranny, nagging, and fuss. The ordinary law, justly administered, she knows and can allow for, she accepts it, as she does the law of gravitation; there is no check to her personal will, as she is not perpetually restrained and coerced by another personal will. This is often the reason why so many children behave so well in school and are disobedient and disorderly at home, where the personal element is inevitably larger and caprice is unchecked. Even if the parent is right the child does not always see the reason for a particular action, and thinks "it is only mother's fad". School rules have not this personal element, and teachers would do well to guard them from any suspicion of personal caprice or influence. Pupils should realise that every one is under the law; that the teachers are also "men under authority," that some of the laws they have to administer are not of their own making, and that official duty may be, and sometimes is, a different thing from personal unofficial opinion and sympathy. The conception of law as a greater matter than any individual will, as the expression of something

wider and broader than mere personal authority, essential though that may be, is fundamental in the establishment of true and real discipline.

Every school has its own detailed methods of securing discipline, its own sanctions or punishments, its own rules. Of these methods three appear to be worth presentation in this chapter. One is the prefect system, as acting in day schools for girls. We should all agree that government is better and easier when it is worked with the consent of the governed, and that self-government is the ideal, not coercion by an external authority. The prefect system is a means to these ends. It furnishes an organ of communication between the school and the teachers, by which the authorities can to a certain extent learn to see things from the pupil's side; it also provides for some measure of representative government, and therefore of self-government. Its success in boys' schools is well-known; it is equally successful and valuable in girls' schools, when once it is established and working. The only difficulty is in the relations of the prefects to the staff; they are, of course, responsible directly to the central authority, to the head, and yet their authority as individuals is lower than that of a teacher. As their functions are however quite independent of class work, and deal only with keeping order in matters affecting the whole school, there are not many points where any friction between them and a class teacher can arise.

Second, we may note the advantages of encouraging public spirit in a form, of making the form realise its unity, its corporate life, of being proud of its untarnished record for conduct, its place in the school, its success in games and tournaments. *Divide et impera* applies here, as in other methods of government; and rule is far easier when any disorder or epidemic of disloyalty has to conquer separate strongholds, each with a good tradition. The duller and poorer forms may be encouraged and

stimulated too; they may each have their legitimate source of satisfaction and pride.

Thirdly, it may be worth while to spend a few minutes on the system of sanctions devised and evolved by the women who made the girls' high schools, sanctions so simple, so efficient, and apparently so weak that men cannot as a rule understand how the government of our schools is carried on at all. There is of course one supreme sanction always in the background, as with boys; *aut disce, aut discede*: even though the *tertia sors* be denied us, we can always say "Go". But expulsion is of course a last resort. Before it comes the step of writing home to lodge a formal complaint, and request the parent to come to school and discuss the difficulty or offence that has arisen. This with us is the weighty sanction; what may be the result of such an interview depends on circumstances; in grave cases, where some impression has to be made, enforced absence for a day or a week may be a suitable device, or some serious steps may be taken at home by parents to punish a girl. In cases of real moral offences something is generally done in the way of altering a girl's routine of work or pleasure, depriving her of some freedom or privilege for a time. Often the mere fact of the parent being asked to come to school for such an interview is enough; the shame and disgrace of it is felt sufficiently.

These cases do not, however, often occur: before matters reach that point there is a long chain of cumulative influence and penalties. The form teacher uses her influence; some system of small penalties for breaches of order acts as a deterrent, so too does the influence of the form, which may suffer for the misdeeds of its members. If all this has little effect, the girl may be reported to the head, who has to deal with the matter as may seem best for the girl individually. Sometimes a talk is enough;

some anti-social offences, like the various forms of deceit, can be dealt with by isolation from class for a fixed period, the girl having to work alone and being separated at playtime from her companions; and for serious breaches of school order, such as leaving the building without permission, insubordination, or disobedience, it is well to have the custom of giving an imposition, which should be treated as a special disgrace. At University College School, London, a large first grade school for boys, where they are proud of having no corporal punishment, a cumulative system of penalties somewhat after this plan obtains, and is said to work successfully.

This chapter may well be concluded by a quotation from one of our later-day poets, himself a firm believer in the positive value of discipline as a training of character, who has again and again, both in verse and prose, taught our easy, luxurious and pleasure-loving generation the need and the power of—

Law, order, duty and restraint, obedience, discipline.[1]

Writing of his own school, and seeking to express his gratitude to his old master, he has expounded with equal justice and sympathy the ideal of the teacher in this all-important section of his work:—

Let us now praise famous men—
Men of little showing—
For their work continueth,
And their work continueth,
Broad and deep continueth,
Greater than their knowing!

This we learned from famous men,
Knowing not its uses,
When they showed, in daily work,
Man must finish off his work—
Right or wrong, his daily work—
And without excuses.

[1] Rudyard Kipling, *The Seven Seas.*

This we learned from famous men
  Teaching in our borders,
Who declarèd it was best,
Safest, easiest, and best—
Expeditious, wise and best—
  To obey your orders.

Wherefore praise we famous men
  From whose bays we borrow—
They who put aside To-day
All the joys of their To-day,
And with toil of their To-day
  Bought for us *To-morrow*.[1]

[1] *Stalky & Co.*

CHAPTER X.

FORM MANAGEMENT AND MORAL TRAINING.

WE have placed these subjects together for two reasons: first, they are largely the work of the form mistress, and second, they are very closely connected with one another. The routine details of form management are definitely designed for moral training in the virtues of accuracy, neatness and order, of special value for a woman's duties in after life. The form-room and dressing-room must be kept neat, each girl's things in her own locker, or on her own peg, her books labelled, etc., in accordance with the school regulations; the girl's name on her belongings when necessary, and so forth. To see that all this is done is a great deal of trouble to the mistress, and the brilliant young college woman is often impatient over it. She thinks (one has thought it one's self), "Why cannot this be done, as in France, by an inferior type of assistant?" "How can I have my mind on my algebra lesson, if I am required at the same time to see that the desks are straight, and the algebra books labelled, and the girls sitting properly?" The reply might be in the terms of Drake's answer to some objection on the part of his gentlemen adventurers to share in the rough work of the ship:—

> I should like to see the gentleman that will refuse to set his hand to a rope. I must have the gentlemen to hale and draw with the mariners.

As a matter of fact, the school routine would lose half its value as training[1] if it were seen to by an inferior mis-

[1] See Max Leclerc, *L'Education en Angleterre*, p. 69.

tress; it is just because the form mistress herself sees to these things that the girls realise their importance.[1] As we have said, however (p. 56), a mistress can train her monitors to help with a good deal of this routine.

Registers of attendance are customary in all educational institutions, even universities, and this because attendance, *time*, is in a school what money is in a business, the thing that has to be counted, checked, watched for. The legal phrase, "Time is of the essence of the contract," may well be applied to education. Registers are also used for the entering of marks, numerical statements put down by a mistress after each lesson against the names of pupils, as an estimate of the worth of their work. In many schools these are added up periodically and awards made according to the amount gained. Some persons object to this; they say it confuses the child's idea of the reasons of school work. The girls work for marks, and what marks bring, *viz.* prizes. There is a possible danger in this, but we have to remember that marks, like coin, are not only a medium of exchange but a measure of value. Even if there were no prizes or awards, one must have some means of estimating what one thinks of a pupil's work, and a mark of some kind, 5, 10, etc., is the most convenient. Some teachers think that by having grades A, B, C, or the $\alpha -$, $\beta +$, etc., one gets over the objection. This is hardly obvious; the numerical method attempts to be a little more exact, and is easier when a number of results have to be added together. For advanced work numerical methods break down; one cannot compare 66 per cent. in a conics paper with 88 per cent. in a historical essay. To avoid accidental errors competitive awards should never be given on a difference of less than 2 per cent. In some schools marks are added

[1] "Et tant qu'il y aura deux hommes chargés l'un d'instruire, l'autre de surveiller, l'enfant d'esprit éveillé et malin verra toujours dans l'un le supérieur, dans l'autre l'inférieur."—M. Couyba, Rapport-Général, No. 1196 (v.).

up every week and lists read or otherwise made public; this is a burden on the mistress and an unnecessary stimulus. Terminal addition ought to be enough with girls, if the form mistresses are up to their work. The plan of assembling the whole school at the end of the term for the reading of reports on the work of each form is found in practice to be very effective; only those who do *well* should be mentioned by name.

The chief argument for marks and prizes is that they unquestionably do get better work out of younger pupils, who have not yet learnt to work for the sake of working; one may wonder whether all grown-up people have. Human nature being what it is, some definite reward or mark of approval is a natural and proper stimulus. Competitive prizes are, however, open to serious objection, since the success of one girl means the loss of others, and since, with girls, excessive anxiety and over-exertion may be aroused in the competition. Standard prizes, given to every girl whose work reaches a high standard, are, we believe, not only unobjectionable, but valuable.

The rules for order vary in different schools; they may be classified under three heads: concerning the way homework is done; concerning times and places for silence and ways of moving about the building; and concerning property. The latter is particularly important with girls, whose natural work in the home is to take care of property. It is quite reasonable to exact a higher standard from them than from boys, to prevent, *e.g.*, desks being marked, or floors stained with ink. Some schools expect a girl to report herself for breaches of order; this is we think a great mistake; one recalls the phrase of a schoolfellow in a composition lesson in the early days of high schools, "It shows a candid mind to confess a fault, whether guilty of it or not". It is the business of teachers, prefects and monitors to see that the rules are obeyed, and the responsi-

bility for reporting herself ought not to be thrown on a girl. By monitors we mean the girls elected in each form to help with that form; they can be left in charge if the teacher has to be momentarily absent, and they can see to minor points of order. It is for them to maintain the tone of the form, and to take steps to put down anything really wrong, like cheating or disloyalty. If this prevails to a dangerous extent and they cannot deal with it alone, they may then go to the form mistress or to the head, but they should not do this in the case of ordinary school offences. It is not fair "to tell" about these. Monitors should have certain privileges, as their work means extra time and trouble; generally they and their parents appreciate the honour of office, and the value of the training they receive. Prefects, who are elected from the sixth form, are on duty specially when the whole school is assembled or is moving about, and have more power than monitors.

The question of punishments was referred to in the previous chapter; these should always be kept at a minimum. It is a very bad sign if a mistress is always punishing pupils; in many cases a word or a look even ought to be enough. Nagging at a form too is a great mistake, and in the end produces no effect—for good. A form may be punished for form offences, such as noise or general bad work, but this should be done with judgment; one should never punish a form for the fault of a member of it, though one can make a form feel very uncomfortable, and set the monitors to use their influence, if something has gone wrong and the culprit is unknown.

Training in manners is of course in the first instance for the home, but a form mistress can do a great deal. Deference and respect to superiors, little acts of kindness and courtesy to one another, arise naturally out of the circumstances of school life. To have good manners one's self is the best way to teach them. There are two places in

school where discipline may seem to interfere with manners. First, the influence of the silence rule which would forbid a girl to say "Yes, thank you" in certain times and places, and the formality of order which would forbid a girl stepping out of line to pick up something for any one. Hurry is also sometimes given as an excuse for carelessness in manners. On the other hand, the influence of a great school in repressing conceit, display, self-assertion, and in teaching respect for others, strikes at the root of that selfishness which is the origin of all innate discourtesy.

It is obvious that if a form mistress has to see to all these things she must not have too many girls in her form. How can she "go over" them all (as the professional phrase runs) if she has more than thirty? For the ordinary teacher twenty-five is quite enough.

We have reserved to the end of this section the very difficult question of homework; we cannot do without it, for pupils must make the material of the lessons their own, must go over what they have had in class, must practise what they have learnt in mathematics or languages; it may be even as Mr. Barnett says, "That they are to go on for themselves in a subject, breaking new ground".[1] Girls, however, are apt to worry over homework, they will not leave it undone, and they do not mind drudgery. There is perhaps no absolute solution of the problem applicable to all cases. Only the minimum necessary should be set. A mistress should always ask herself, "Could we do without homework?" Good teaching and thorough attention in class save excessive memory work afterwards. Formal homework timetables may be useful, and may not; what matters is to forbid the study of too many subjects at once. With a lesson every day continuity is preserved, and less homework is necessary. Girls should be taught how to cultivate concentration, and the power of quick work, and not to "stodge" over their homework.

[1] *Common Sense in Education and Teaching.*

The circumstances of individual girls vary considerably; some have more home duties than others, some travel greater distances, some are delicate. It is a head mistress's duty to go into such cases, and arrange for particular needs. Such a girl may leave out one subject and take the time in school for her homework in other subjects. This is, of course, a loss, but it is better than a breakdown, or a vain struggle to do all the work. Much over-pressure is due to external examinations; if these are reduced in number and simplified[1] mistresses are much freer in setting homework, and in studying what is really needed by their pupils.

As regards the amount of time, we may make a few general statements. Girls may begin to work alone at about twelve; up to seven or eight they should not be at school in the afternoons at all, they should spend their time at home in sleep, exercise, and play. The home time-table in later years may be as follows:—

Twelve years . . .	1 to 1½ hours	Five days per week.
Thirteen years . .	1½ to 2 hours	
Fourteen years . .	2 hours	
Fifteen years . . .	2½ hours	
Sixteen years and over .	2½ to 3 hours	

The specimen weekly time-table for a girl of fourteen may run thus: Morning school session—class work, 18 hours (1 to 2 hours' recess and exercise); home work, 10 hours; one afternoon drawing or sewing, 2 hours—total, 32 hours. Time for games and for instrumental music are not included. The corresponding time-table for a senior girl in the upper forms would be: Class work, 15 or 16 hours; the home lessons and private work in library or laboratory, 15 to 20 hours—total, 30 to 36 hours. One extra subject, drawing or gymnastics, 2 hours—total, 32 to 38 hours.

[1] See chap. xii.

Moral Training.

We have stated above (Chapter IV., p. 68) that direct moral instruction is not the best way to promote the development of character. The reasons for this are fully stated by the High Master of the Manchester Grammar School (J. Lewis Paton) in a Presidential Address this year to the Teachers' Guild. This address is, however, penetrated through and through by the idea of the school and the teacher giving moral training. It would not be easy to find a better exposition of the subject; the lecture should be read at length.

A convenient summary of the matter is found in the Code of the Board of Education for public elementary schools (Introduction).[1]

> And, though their opportunities are but brief, the teachers can yet do much to lay the foundations of conduct. They can endeavour, by example and influence, aided by the sense of discipline which should pervade the School, to implant in the children habits of industry, self-control, and courageous perseverance in the face of difficulties; they can teach them to reverence what is noble, to be ready for self-sacrifice, and to strive their utmost after purity and truth; they can foster a strong sense of duty, and instil in them that consideration and respect for others which must be the foundation of unselfishness and the true basis of all good manners; while the corporate life of the School, especially in the playground, should develop that instinct for fair-play and for loyalty to one another which is the germ of a wider sense of honour in later life.

Primarily, moral education like religious education is mainly the business of the parent. The home lays the foundation, but the school can help by the inculcation of school virtues and by the influence of corporate life. The teacher should always support the parents, and work with them in moral training. One may say to a child who is in some difficulty or has not been behaving

[1] Cd. 3594.

well: "Talk to father or mother about it on Sunday". Even the busiest parents then have an opportunity of affording guidance to a girl. The parent, conversely, must support the teacher's authority to the child.

As we have seen, occasions for moral training come all day and every day. A teacher must prepare herself to meet them by clear thinking, by the study of psychology and ethics, and of individual children. The following classification of Froebel's principles by Bradley is useful: 1. "All life is a development from *within*." We therefore shall not be satisfied by imposing our will on the pupil; we shall strive to induce her to use her own. 2. "Development results from activity, and is the outcome of one's own will." We shall provide, then, opportunities for initiative, for self-government, and freedom of action. 3. "Complete development is impossible to the individual except as one of a community." We see thus the need and the value of social life in school, and of corporate activity. 4. "The child must be at each stage of development wholly what the stage requires." The secondary school covers three such stages—ten to twelve when growth and progress are rapid; the difficult years of adolescence, thirteen to fifteen, when girls need special care; and youth, sixteen to eighteen, when real intellectual life is vivid and strong.

A full treatment of the subject, especially from the point of view of a woman teacher, is to be found in two works by Mrs. Sophie Bryant.[1] Her thesis on the methods of dealing with a strong-willed and a weak-willed child is especially helpful in practice.

It may be said that a teacher has four methods in moral training—the effect of habit, the appeal to the reason, the appeal to the conscience, personal influence. The last with girls and women has such special power and danger that it needs to be treated somewhat fully.

[1] *Short Studies in Character* and *The Teaching of Morality*.

There is doubtless in all effective teaching a certain element of suggestion; the pupil understands and acts because the will power of the teacher has made him or her do so.[1] One may hear a girl say: "I understood the algebra when we were in class with you, Miss X., but I could not understand it at all when I got home". Clearly personal influence in this case was transitory and fugitive, but it is not always so.

In this connection it is necessary to say a few words on a phenomenon characteristic of girls' education—the hero-worship, adoration, or *schwärmerei*—there is no exact English word for it—which some girls have felt, and many have seen in others, if not in themselves, towards some teacher or leader in school life. Foolish, ridiculous, and even injurious forms of this are bad, bad for every one concerned. Some authorities have so strong an opinion on this that they would wish to suppress it entirely, and not reckon with it in school management and in the over-sight of girls. This is probably too extreme a view. There is a really true and not ignoble emotion, a natural product of the age and circumstances of the girl, which should be recognised, allowed for, regulated, controlled, and made a help and not a hindrance in moral development. Let us enter into the reasons more in detail:—1. There is a true and noble instinct of hero-worship, of following a leader, which characterises boys as well as girls, and which is the basis of some of our highest virtues. Tacitus in the *Germania* speaks of the Comitatus system among our Teutonic fathers, the germ of feudalism and loyalty; Celtic literature is full of similar examples of the devotion of the clansman to the chief. The same feeling appears in later history, especially in connection with wars and exploration, but there are examples also in industrial life. Girls and women may surely then experience this

[1] *Common Sense in Education*, p. 64.

feeling in a thoroughly sound and healthy fashion. 2. A woman's life is, moreover, largely concerned with emotion; to suppress this will be injurious, to allow it to develop slowly and harmlessly, in respect or even reverence for some one who is older and presumably wiser than a girl herself, is not injurious and may be helpful. Teachers, however, must be wise in using this force; they must endeavour to secure sound physical conditions; games and open-air exercise and abundance of sleep, and of all influences that will tend to healthy nervous action. The curriculum must include studies to cultivate the reason; a common-sense way of looking at things should prevail, and the intellectual standard of the work should be high. The custom of the school should repress external signs of emotion; a sincere desire to please a teacher finds its appropriate expression in deeds, not in words. The public opinion of the school should be healthy and averse to the sentimental. Most important of all, the teacher should realise the danger of using her influence for personal gratification and vanity, and must avoid appealing to personal motives. It is never right to say to a girl: "Do this to please me" in any question of school work or morals; a mother may say this, but not a teacher.

Strong personal influence of the kind we have been describing is a heavy responsibility; in any case it should be only a stage. The dependence of a soul on another human being cannot be ultimate. A wise writer says: "The only thing that can satisfy a human being is an object of devotion not himself, for which he can feel it worth while to sacrifice himself without limit". The last phrase takes us, as all true thinking on such matters must, to a higher reality. Moral education must have its basis in religion. It is not possible to train character without reference to the ultimate sanctions and influences on which goodness depends. Teachers know this, and the leaders

of our profession, Arnold, Thring, and many more, bear witness to it.

In a day school the influence of religion is felt more especially in three ways. First, in the divinity lessons, which are in general Scripture lessons. The English instinct for keeping the Bible for a text-book in schools is well justified in practice. We teachers have no difficulties in our classrooms. One cannot explain this; one can only appeal to experience. The second way is in dealing with individuals privately at special crises. These vary, but there are three which are typical—sin, trouble, vocation. This last comes when a girl's career has to be decided, or decisions made as to her future; trouble comes to many girls in school with bereavement, losses, disappointments, when the teacher she knows and respects must seek to bring her a word of sympathy and comfort. The first comes, too, as it needs must in this world, when a girl's wrong-doing is not merely a breach of school order, but, like lying, sloth, or unkindness, a sin. At all such crises, when the deeper things of life come to the surface, an appeal to the spiritual side is both natural and fitting, and is often the only possible method.

The third way is the expression of the corporate life of the school in simple religious observances, such as school prayers. These are not direct, individual and occasional, but general, periodic, and indirect. They should be simple, short, and real; elaboration and length mean obscurity and fatigue, or even irritation to a child. A school hymn book is needed, as it gives that part of the observance in which the pupils take most share. Some authorities find special religious societies useful; we are in some doubt as to these, but would not absolutely forbid them. They are best worked in connection with something that already exists in the school, as the Scripture lessons, or charitable work.

There is one occasion of piety in the school year which makes a profound impression on even the youngest children—Founders' Day. The boys' schools have their time-honoured ceremonial; we can use it too. The whole school, wearing perhaps the school badge, meets in the hall, which is decorated in fair yet simple fashion. Former pupils, some of them grey-headed women, come back to sit on the old benches, and hear the old words. A procession of dignitaries enters and mounts the platform. Hymns are sung, prayers are read, founders and benefactors, who have passed away, are commemorated by name. The head prefect reads the beautiful old lesson, "Let us now praise famous men, and our fathers that begat us". Some chosen speaker, man or woman, fittingly expresses the solemn yet joyful meaning and the emotions of the day. To those who have witnessed such a service, the religious influence of the life of a day school will be none the less truly felt and known though it cannot fully be expressed in words.

CHAPTER XI.

PERSONAL RELATIONS.

THIS title may seem at first a strange one, and truly it is not a phrase commonly met with in educational technique; the subject, indeed, may well be omitted or avoided, as it bristles with difficulties, and depends so much on individual idiosyncrasies, personal opinions and feelings, and varied pedagogic experiences or traditions that one cannot well lay down principles or dogmatise on the details as with curricula or form management. It is, however, of such fundamental importance that it is well to attempt to say something on the subject, more especially as mistakes are so often made in this sphere of our work, and when made are so fatal.

The great importance of the matter of personal relations in school organisation lies in the fact that personal action and reaction are the essence of school education as we know it. It is to bring about this action and reaction that boys and girls are placed at school, or else books and pupils would be left together in a library. In secondary education, in particular, the personal element is everything, a principle depending largely on the fact that young people in our secondary schools are at the most susceptible age. This principle acts, of course, in college education, but college education is concerned rather with the subject than with the individual. A wise saying on education was that of the late W. H. Widgery, a brilliant young Modern Language master: "The college professor pre-

vails by his scholarship, the primary teacher by his method, the secondary school teacher by his character, his personality". And the truth of the last statement becomes more and more evident to any one dealing on a large scale with school organisation. What one needs above all in a teacher is personality, character, for the best part of his work is a matter of personal relation, of that personal action and reaction in which, mainly, our secondary education consists.

In saying this we think chiefly of the most fundamental of these personal relations, that of teacher and pupil; but there are others to be discussed in studying school organisation. There are always three people to be considered, teacher, pupil and parent, and we teachers are often inclined to ignore the last. Besides the necessary and helpful relation, if it be rightly managed, of teacher and parent, there are, also in a large school, other complex relations, those of colleagues *inter se*, whether as equals or as head and subordinate. Then there is also the interesting and difficult question of the relation of the head to the individual pupil, and of the proper limits of the form teacher's authority and work in this relation. We have to study a final section of the subject, personal still, though less individual—that of the school to the outside world. All these relations are clearly worth consideration.

Let us first seek for a principle to guide us in the study of the relations between teacher and pupil; it is easy to find the most fundamental of all. "Ama, et fac quid vis," said Augustine of an even greater matter than education, and after Pestalozzi and Froebel we all agree, even when we do not talk about it, that love is the guiding principle in all dealings with our children. No one has any business to be a teacher who has not at least some regard for her pupils, if only as a matter of professional feeling.

And truly with all their faults and failings, teachers do

not fail here; the amount of interest, care, and devotion they give to their pupils, freely and ungrudgingly, shows well enough that this guiding principle is as much to them as duty and honour to the soldier and the seaman. But as a natural consequence of this very care and devotion, and of the necessity of perpetually finding fault, criticising, watching for errors and correcting them, teachers, often the best teachers, are apt to despair, to condemn or to abandon the difficult, dull and troublesome pupil. There is nothing in which teachers are more tempted than in this—to give up a pupil and to say: "You can make nothing of so-and-so, she is incorrigibly idle"—or "naughty"—or (most frequently) "stupid". This is fundamentally wrong; wrong psychologically and wrong ethically. Stupid or dull often only means that we are not treating the pupil properly, that the method, classification, and subject are unfit. Idleness may mean ill-health, bad management, slack discipline—and as for actual wrong-doing, is it not common enough in ourselves, but yet we do not all commit suicide. We must be optimists, difficult though it often be—one must never give up any, trying to get at them in one way if we cannot in another. The naughtiness is often only the product of a period of change and growth; the obstinate, disobedient, lawless youth becomes a strong, original, able character by-and-by. Our material is young, and is developing and altering every day; and much that we do, though it appears to be lost, has yet had its share in forming and building up the mind of the future, like last year's bygone sunshine, that ripened the bulbs of this year's flowers.

There is but one case where we can often do very little, where frequent disappointment, though never despair, may be a large part of the relation between teacher and pupil, and that is when girls who have been badly taught, badly trained, demoralised by wrong influences, slack discipline,

or association with inefficient teachers whom they have learnt to despise, come to another school at fifteen, sixteen or seventeen years of age to "finish" an education which has never been properly begun. This problem occurs in girls' schools, owing to the low state of public opinion as to the necessity of a thorough education, though it is not as common as it was ten years ago. It is very hard to get a girl right at sixteen years of age, when her habits of work or idleness, her moral and social ideas, and a great part of her character are already formed, and when she really does not believe that the school authorities know any better than she does. In such cases one has to work by fear, and by a severer discipline than would otherwise be necessary, though even here there is room enough for hope of girls of this type, who come back in after years and remember with gratitude the influences and the help of their teacher, who seemed at the time to be but pouring water upon the ground. We must seek always and with all pupils to believe in the good that is in them, and follow, however haltingly, the heavenly charity that "beareth all things, believeth all things, hopeth all things". Young people respond, indeed, in the most extraordinary way to this trust; for as there is a healing force in nature that helps the physician, so there is an inner moral force in the fresh young mind and heart of youth, acting for right growth, if we can but leave it unchecked.

In regard to the relations between parent and teacher the problem clearly differs according as we deal with boarding schools or day schools. In the former, the teacher is in a special sense *in loco parentis*, and the relation of teacher and parent is therefore less important and urgent. In day schools, on the other hand, the relation becomes a very much more pressing matter. The day school has for its very rationale the combination of home and school influence, and it is therefore clear that

harmony between the two is essential if day school education is to be effective.

Harmony means that the two authorities, teacher and parent, should act together, reinforcing one another, each respecting the other's province, as in the famous Scottish description of the relations of Church and State, "co-ordinate jurisdiction with mutual subordination". Experience proves that this is possible and successful, and as time goes on and the anomalies of the present condition of our educational system disappear, the discords of which one hears so much will disappear also. No one can have any experience of our profession without hearing of these discords; but they are due largely, like some of the family difficulties of to-day, to our living in a period of transition.

The parents of our pupils have not all been educated in such schools or under such conditions as the girls themselves, and they therefore do not understand what we are doing. It is said to be the case that the head masters of the public schools have little difficulty with the fathers who were themselves public school men; and the girls' high schools find their work much easier in this generation than in the last, now that many mothers of their girls have been themselves educated in a similar fashion. Another cause of discord is the unfortunate state of public opinion in England on education; from this we still suffer, as compared with Switzerland, Germany and Scotland, where the authority of the parent inevitably supports the authority of the school, and where, for example, irregularity of attendance due to indifference in the home is all but unknown. But here, also, matters are improving, and by care, tact and reasonableness combined with determination, the teacher can do much to remove ignorance or indifference on matters of school discipline.

The authorities should endeavour to make the relation between home and school as close and harmonious

as may be. Parents should be encouraged to visit the school on all proper occasions, and to become acquainted with its working. Open days, exhibits of school work, and so forth, provide opportunities in this direction. Consultation between teacher and parent is also arranged for in the programme of most head masters and mistresses; periodic reports of progress are sent home in almost all schools, and all the apparatus of notes after absence, home tables, weekly mark sheets, etc., is directed to the same end. Parents' evenings are regularly held in some day schools, when parents are invited to meet the staff of teachers and discuss in conference or individually matters of common interest. A distinct effort is often made to enable parents to meet the individual assistant teacher who is concerned with her child. We quote from a document officially sent out by the head master of a great urban day school:—

> With a view to meeting the wishes of parents who may desire to consult masters privately as to the progress of their sons, their future career, or other matters concerning their welfare, it has been arranged to set apart a room for this purpose, and the masters will be free to see parents at the times stated below. Any parents wishing to have an interview with a master, are requested to give notice of their intention at least one day previously, and at the same time indicate the question to be discussed, so that the master may get such information as may be necessary from any colleague who may be concerned.

It is important to remember that the teacher is an expert; her opinion, like that of the medical woman, must be respected, and she must have the same sense of honour in giving it, painful though the act may sometimes be. It is, for example, one of the most trying experiences of our work to have to tell an earnest and ambitious parent that her girl is dull or limited, and will never fulfil that parent's dreams. It will, however, be found in gene-

ral, that the parent does respect the teacher's opinion. On the other hand, the teacher is apt to ignore the parent's point of view—to forget the accumulated cost of fees, books, tram fares, and so on, to overlook the need of preparation for bread-winning work, or the nervous anxiety of a timid child in new surroundings, or with uncongenial or severe teachers. Sympathy is the key to solve such difficulties, and a friendly chat, or a kindly explanation with a parent will generally put all right again. The hardest problem in these relations is that of supporting the harsh or injudicious action of a colleague against the complaint of a parent; justice must be done, and yet loyalty from a chief to a subordinate is as necessary as loyalty in the reverse relation. No general solution of such a problem can be given; each case must be dealt with on its own merits as it arises.

The statement of this problem leads to the consideration of the relation of teachers in one school to one another, of colleagues, and in this we should include the relation of head and assistant. All indeed are teachers together, and form one category, like the officers of a regiment; and the analogy of the mess, with its traditions of mutual honour and brotherhood, will give us valuable principles in studying the relations of the common room. Mutual loyalty and respect are, of course, essential and obvious rules; and as teaching becomes more and more a recognised profession, professional feeling will cure some of the evils we suffer under to-day.

The value of regular and periodic teachers' meetings in prompting unity and community of feeling is generally recognised. Busy as we are, we should seek to know more of one another's work, and to co-operate not only in matters of routine and discipline, but in correlating subjects of study. Organisation of all the teachers taking a particular subject throughout the school is also valuable,

one teacher being chosen head for this subject, and presiding at meetings; such a one needs tact, wisdom and sympathy to preserve the necessary unity in teaching, and yet allow each teacher opportunity for individual freedom and experiment. Such a meeting may be a source of mutual help, and even the youngest and least experienced member may give valuable suggestions. It ought hardly to be necessary to allude to the need of supporting a colleague's authority with pupils, and yet one has heard of cases where such a rule has not been obeyed. It is not undignified or disloyal to say to a girl, "Well, such may be Miss X.'s opinion, but it is a matter on which people differ, and I do not agree with her"—or "Miss Y. doubtless has her reasons for doing so-and-so, and you must ask her for an explanation". Some such phrase must be used in cases where one thinks a colleague wrong, and cannot truthfully support her action; indeed, one of the lessons a large school teaches is, that people do differ, and one must learn to tolerate such differences. It is, however, most important to preserve the outward forms of respect and the ceremony of discipline, whatever one may say privately to a colleague. To support the authority of the head is, of course, a rule absolutely binding; if a teacher cannot do this, she should resign. One recalls as apposite the story of some premier—(was it Lord Melbourne?)—at a Cabinet Council: "Well, gentlemen, it doesn't matter which we say—yes or no—but we must all say the same thing," and once a decision has been made at a teachers' meeting or elsewhere, it must be supported by everybody.

A strong degree of professional feeling and mutual support and influence among the members of the staff is a very valuable tradition; in one great school, all matters of supervision and routine are arranged by the staff, without any interference on the part of the head, and a teacher who is remiss in detail is brought to book by colleagues,

not by a superior authority. It is no small part of good organisation to develop unity and *esprit de corps* in a staff, and measures directed to this end are worth seeking for.

The next section of our subject is the relation of chief and subordinate, of head and assistant. First let us enter a caveat against the theory, too often carried into practice, that there is an essential difference between the head and an assistant. That this is not so a moment's consideration will prove; it is a mere accident, due to what we call chance or opportunity, that makes one teacher a head and the other an assistant. They have had the same sort of training and the same experience, and belong to the same social class. "Primus inter pares" ought to describe the situation, and might well do so, but for three considerations. In the first place, as the responsibility for what is done rests on the head of a school, hers must be the decision where there is a difference of opinion; this authority must be the ultimate Court of Appeal. For the same reason, the head should know all that goes on; changes in the daily routine should not, in general, be made without mentioning the matter at headquarters. Initiative and freedom can well be left to the form teacher, providing the central authority knows what is actually being done.

In the second place, the central authority is the organ through which the unity of the school is preserved, as is the central government of a country, or the sovereign of many scattered states. Balance among the subjects of study, a uniform plan of discipline, the interests of the whole organism, or the whole career of an individual pupil, are matters which can hardly be properly considered by any form or subject mistress. They must be the province of one authority, and it is here that the largest part of the work of a head must lie. The function of the

balance, of a governor in a steam engine, of a moderator between the claims of conflicting studies and demands, is indeed among the most important functions of the head of a school, who must see education as a whole, and not merely from the point of view of one subject.

Thirdly, and this is perhaps the most marked of the points in which the position of a chief differs from that of a subordinate, the head represents the school to the outside world. To her the parents confide their children, explain their circumstances and hopes, and make their protests and objections. The social life of the community too naturally tends to symbolise the school by the teacher whom it sees on occasions of ceremony, and as personality counts for so much in education the instinct in this respect is sound.

Some consideration of these three points, which we may call responsibility, unification, and representation, will show what should be the special personal relations of heads and assistants as such, bearing always in mind their common professional status, their common aims and interests. An interesting problem in government arises when we study the mutual relations of pupil, form teacher and head ; its analogies are seen in the political problems of the relation of central and local authorities in government. Broadly speaking, as there is in government a type for strong centralisation, as in France, and for wide local independence and variation, as in America, so in school organisation there are the two types—one, where the central authority does everything, and the assistants have little freedom or independence ; and the other, where the form teacher is the more important and active authority to the pupil, and the central authority is a dim and distant, and maybe, an awful personage, acting only on rare occasions and in great causes.

Both systems have their merits, and it would ill become

an individual writer to pronounce in favour of either. English people in their system of government have sought to combine the unity and efficiency of the centralised system with the freedom, independence, and adaptation to special needs of vigorous local government. And so it should be in a school. The central authority should seek to encourage in the form teacher initiative, freedom, and that personal interest and enthusiasm that come from freedom and power; the form teacher must accept, as all good teachers do, the unity and uniformity of rules, curricula, and even of spirit and tone, necessary to keep the school a whole. Probably the personal influence of the form teacher will generally count for more to the individual pupil than the remote and indirect influence of the head; much, however, depends on individual idiosyncrasy, and to dogmatise on so delicate a question is impossible. One statement might, however, be made; the head ought to act as form teacher to the highest class of the school—above all, if the prefect system obtain. The instinct of the great head masters is true here, and women teachers would do well to follow their example. That they have often not done so has been due to the peculiar position of the pioneer women, who gained for their pupils that university education which they could not themselves have had.

One reason why the head should act as form teacher in the highest form is that such pupils must be taught entirely by specialists; the head should, however, be able to take them all for lessons in divinity and English, which they all should learn. The personal influence and interest they need can best come from the head; they can govern themselves, too, and do not require the watching and attention in matters of detail which an ordinary form teacher must give. Essential points of detail, as keeping the attendance, preparing reports, etc., may be done by

the senior prefect, and by a young graduate fresh from college, and not yet experienced enough to be a form teacher.

We have not yet touched on what is perhaps the most important personal relation of all, that of pupils to one another; nor, indeed, is there much that we can do here, except to decide which of the two opinions on the subject we mean to follow. There are two, clearly marked and of absolutely opposite intention. One opinion would consider that the influence of one pupil on another is more likely to result in harm than good, and would therefore minimise the sphere of this personal relation. This is the view of the old style of girls' schools, and indeed of one set or section of high school tradition. To such an opinion are due regulations forbidding all speaking in school, all going home together without the written consent of the parents, the minimising of all opportunities of meeting other girls at school except under careful supervision, and so forth. There is an ideal behind all these regulations, and an ideal one would wish to respect. To treat it fully would mean the discussion of questions of philosophy and social tradition entirely outside the scope of a work like this.

The other opinion is that acted upon in the English public school system, that the free influence of pupils on one another is, with all its dangers and difficulties, a unique method of developing character and fitting boys for their work in the world. Foreign observers have even attributed the superiority of the Anglo-Saxon to this side of our education, and its value for boys is indeed generally accepted.

The question is not the same for girls, whose work in the world is not to go out and rule, or in ordinary cases to deal in a practical way with large numbers of various kinds of other girls and women. If they are going to carry on work of such a kind, they certainly will be

prepared for it by wide experience of their fellows in school. Even in the new type of boarding schools for wealthy girls the tradition of the boys' schools is being followed, and followed with success. Indeed, the introduction of games implies the recognition of the influence of girls on one another as acting for good.

One difficulty in allowing this freedom is the question of manners, especially manners of the more reserved, formal, artificial, though gracious type, which is not as fashionable to-day as fifty years ago. Girls do tend to make one another easier, more natural and unreserved, even sometimes less gracious in manner and less considerate for others, than the close and careful control of an older woman, mother or governess, would effect. Some persons fear what is more serious, a real lowering of tone, and a loss of innate refinement, if girls are left to influence one another much. This, however, does not happen with girls whose own standard is reasonably high. They help, not hinder, one another; and if the tone of the school is good, a less refined girl, be she rich or poor, gentle or simple, is soon made to conform to it. The girls themselves can do far more in this way than any mistress, however watchful; they are much more likely to take the duty of maintaining the tone of the school on themselves if they are left free, and are expected to do it.

The last division of the subject, the relation of the school to the outside world, varies much according to the kind of school, but some principles are true of all types. First, there *is* such a relation. The school has its place in the community, though we may not all agree as to exactly the particular place. Switzerland, Germany, Scandinavia, America, have much to teach us here. An Englishwoman cannot study the relation of the school to the community in any of these countries without feeling some shame for her own. Much, indeed, has been done since the day,

within the memory of some still living, when it was a social reproach, at least to a woman of the better class, to be a school mistress.

But much still remains to be done, even since the Act of 1902. It is still rare for a whole community to take a keen personal pride and interest in all its schools. Perhaps some of the blame rests with the teachers; we have thought of the school as ours; we have drawn ourselves aside; we have scorned the advice, the opinions, the aims of the laymen. But we do recognise the relation of the school to the outside world, if only in those annual ceremonies, of speech days, prize-givings and the like, in which the particular school makes its appeal to the special community with which it is concerned. Such, indeed, is the rationale of these ceremonials, and the teacher is wise, not merely prudent, in holding them.

Another principle is that the teacher should study local and special conditions and needs, according to the district or community with which she is concerned. True, there is a liberal education, the same in principle, for all sections of a nation; but there may be a different way of carrying it out, according to local circumstances or demands. One must work with the material one has, and one must therefore get to know its peculiarities, as the mariner the currents and winds of his channel.

In England there is an extraordinary degree of local as well as of individual variation. Hull differs from Bristol, Leeds from Birmingham; London is not the same as Manchester; the East Riding of Yorkshire differs in its educational needs and dangers from Devon, as Devon differs from even Bucks or Salop. One must adapt one's ways and theories to local needs, and a good educational organisation must, therefore, be elastic enough to allow for local variation.

When we consider seriously all these matters of personal

relation and personal influence we may well feel appalled at the difficulties and dangers of our profession.[1] "Who is sufficient for these things?" will be the despairing ejaculation of the young teacher, while the older among us know too well how insufficient we ourselves are. But every profession has its difficulties and dangers. Diagnosis to the physician is at least as difficult, and even more dangerous if he makes an error. The fortune of war, the perils of the ocean have brought undeserved calamity on many a gallant officer and brave seaman. The engineer may miscalculate, the lawyer misjudge, the painter has to struggle with dead colours and flat surfaces to produce the radiance of the sunshine and the depths of the atmosphere. Ours is an art also, and, like the artist, though we can never reach the ideals of our dreams, we still dream of our ideals, and were but mere craftsmen else.

> Ah! but a man's reach should exceed his grasp,
> Or what's a heaven for?

[1] See Thring, *Education and School*, *passim*, for a discussion of some of the problems of this chapter from the point of view of a boys' public school.

CHAPTER XII.

TESTS AND AWARDS.

EXAMINATIONS—INSPECTION—SCHOLARSHIPS.

IT is perhaps not altogether creditable that a chapter such as this should have to be devoted to what is, after all, but incidental machinery; these things are, however, so important at present that they must be considered in any account of English education.

The system of public examinations, as we have known it in England, is peculiar to this country. It is of our own manufacture, and has been for the past fifty years one of the most characteristic features of our education.[1] It has been developed in every grade, university, secondary, primary; characteristically English is it to give university degrees on examination only, as at the University of London, or by elaborate competition like the Cambridge Tripos, which has given us the senior wrangler. "Locals" and other public external examinations from 1858 have played a large part—too large a part, many of us think—in our secondary schools, and our elementary education from 1861 was all but ruined for a generation through the deadly system of payment by results. The countries which are most famous for education—Germany, Switzerland, the United States—have no such systems of examinations. The presumption is therefore against us, and we have nearly fifty years of recent experience from which to draw our arguments in attack or defence.

[1] See *Encyclopædia Britannica*, article by Latham on "Examinations," and Raymont, *Principles of Education*, chap. xiii.

Examinations have had a marked influence on the girls' high schools, inasmuch as the University Locals were eagerly welcomed as a means of raising the standard in the early days. We may quote from a paper read and discussed at a meeting of the London Association of School Mistresses on 24th March, 1868, on "The Influence upon Girls' Schools of External Examinations":—

One grand advantage is the increased steadiness of school work. Every teacher knows how difficult it is in the present confused state of the education of girls to work out intelligently a comprehensive plan which shall combine breadth of general principle with thoroughness and accuracy of detail. Our material is imperfect, our machinery faulty, our motive power fitful and irregular. We have neither perfect pupils, perfect methods, nor, reluctant as we may be to confess it, perfect teachers. We are constantly liable to fail and falter through difficulties arising out of the foolishness of parents, the perversity of pupils, and our own ignorance and indolence.

So long as this is the case, we may well be thankful to accept such support as any well-devised scheme of examination gives us. In the steady endeavour after a clearly defined standard we are more likely to attain the best educational results, than in working according to ever-varying standards, or according to no standard at all.

The meeting arrived at the following conclusions:—

All teachers who are worth anything practise examination. But teachers are not always competent to test their own work, as the same causes which led to mistakes prevent their being found out.

It is better that the test should come early, while there is time to remedy faults, than to wait for the test of life. And this is a reason for using examinations during the school course, and not only at the end.

No scheme of examination is perfect. Its value chiefly depends on the manner in which it is worked by teachers.

The value of the Cambridge Local Examinations is greatly increased by their being alike in subjects and standard for both boys and girls.

For these examinations cramming is totally unnecessary. Steadiness and precision in the work of the *whole* school are encouraged. Ill-natured rivalry is not encouraged. The girls enjoy the examinations, and the effect on health is good, when reasonable precautions are taken against over-excitement.

The scheme has been found incidentally useful, as drawing teachers together, and as drawing parents and teachers together.

Note.—At the Cambridge Examination, held in 1865, 126 girls were examined at six centres. In 1872 the numbers had increased to 847 candidates and thirty-four centres. These figures do not include Oxford and Durham.

We may contrast with this voice of forty years ago the Presidential Address at the last meeting of the Head Mistresses' Association (Westminster Grey Coat School, 1907), when Miss Gadesden, of the Blackheath High School, declared amidst enthusiastic applause:—

Year by year the amount of work required in preparing for university scholarships and certificate examinations and the difficulty of the papers have increased, until the relation between the object attained by the examination and the effort needed to gain the object is out of all proportion.

It appears to me that these examinations have become as much tests of endurance and of physical fitness and health as of intellectual merit and efficiency; and, though there will always be the few who may be inspired to great effort and brilliant performance by the difficulty of the goal which lies before them, yet even *they* often run the risk of serious injury to brain and body which shows its lamentable results in later days. While for the many—though they may have good abilities, and be able to take the preparation and the examinations with sufficient ease and calmness, and though the teachers are allowed to bring to bear upon their work the right conception of the relation of school work to examination—yet even for them the present examination system makes great demands on temperament and health, as well as on brain power, which, in the interests of the future citizens, it would be well to avoid. When, therefore, we reflect on the strain of preparation, on the too often useless loading of the memory with facts, on the reaction from the best kind of study which may follow, on the immense fatigue of mind and body which frequently accom-

panies the actual examination—by the irony of fate they are generally held in the extremes of heat and cold—and the agony of disappointment which accompanies the so-called failure in examinations, we are, I think, driven to ask: Is all this still necessary for the advancement of education, and for the training and intellectual progress of the girls in our schools?

It must, of course, be understood that the reference is to the characteristic English type of examinations we know so well—external, independent of the teacher and of the examinee's record of study, and largely written. The use, the necessity, of internal examinations, weekly, monthly, terminal, sessional, *by the teachers themselves*, to test the pupil's progress, knowledge, diligence, understanding, is so obvious as to need neither argument nor discussion.

Undoubtedly external examinations have had their uses in girls' education; they did raise the standard and check inefficiency, and the founders of the girls' public secondary schools, Frances Mary Buss and Dorothea Beale, eagerly supported and highly valued them in the early days. That stage has passed; public secondary schools no longer need such aids, such tests, though some private schools may. With greater knowledge of what education really is, an elastic State organisation, wise inspection, local and central grants, and a register of efficient schools issued by local authorities—above all, with better teachers, and a stronger professional consciousness—this need will become obsolete.

On the other hand, there is little doubt that the examination system has done real and widespread harm to girls' education. It has discouraged initiative, investigation, and experiment; it has made teachers go on in a formal line laid down for them by examiners at a distant university who know nothing of girls and their needs. It has put a premium on bad mechanical methods of teaching, the pupils' instinct of discovery and investigation being repressed, and the teacher being afraid to diverge from

the details of the examination syllabus into fields richer in nutriment for true intellectual and moral growth. Girls have learnt to work only for success, not for knowledge or future usefulness; and some have been worn out physically and mentally before their real work in life began.

These evils are most serious if a girl's school career is a succession of external examinations; preliminary, junior, senior, and so forth; in some schools, alas! there is one every year from thirteen to sixteen, just at the time when a girl is growing and developing physically, and most needs rest, care, and freedom from nervous strain and excitement. Most of the best schools now have abandoned all external examinations in the *middle* of school life, and enter their girls only at the end, for a school leaving examination.

Even thus modified, examinations are dangerous; they are like opium and strychnine, belladona and arsenic, deadly poisons or beneficent drugs, according as they are employed. We may adapt to them the wise saying of Scott in *Guy Mannering*, speaking as Paulus Pleydell of his own profession: "Law's like laudanum; it's much more easy to use it as a quack does, than to learn to apply it as a physician".

We teachers are now demanding reform, are seeking to apply our powerful drug in a useful way, and signs are not wanting of the true direction for improvement.

First, the teachers themselves must be associated more closely, as they are in Germany, with the examinations; their status has risen since the time when the man who knew best what his pupils could do was contemptuously told "not to brand his own herrings". The school record should be taken into account, as is the students' class record at Harvard and on certain occasions in Manchester, for the award of degrees. These reforms are advocated by Miss Gadesden in the address quoted above:—

As a substitute for the present system of school certificate and scholarship examinations I therefore commend for your consideration some such scheme as follows : The recommendation of the teacher, given through the records which represent the results of the scholars' work over considerable space of time ; the examination by a Board—from which teachers should not be excluded—of the records, followed, if necessary or desirable, by an interview with the candidates ; short examination papers in some subjects to test ability and proficiency of a certain kind. These should be set by examiners of recognised university standing, all of whom should have had actual experience in teaching.

It may be argued that this test of efficiency through records opens the door to favouritism ; but, if the records are signed by the head of the school and by the several teachers of the scholar, the danger is minimised. A great responsibility is of course thrown on the teacher, and it is absolutely necessary that no record should be accepted unless the teacher possesses the hall mark of the profession, and the school that of State recognition.

Some authorities think the Osborne method of selecting naval cadets should be largely employed with young pupils, an oral examination, *i.e.* on general subjects, directed to test intelligence and aptitude. It is not easy to apply, as those who have tried to do it are well aware, and it takes a long time to do even fairly well. For both reasons it is costly.

Something may be done by having external examinations really local, that is, not the same for the whole of England ; each university or other body should have an area in which it is particularly, though not exclusively, interested : London University, the home counties, as well as the capital ; Oxford and Birmingham, the West and the Midlands, and so forth. The Joint Matriculation Board of the four northern universities (Manchester, Liverpool, Leeds and Sheffield) is rapidly developing such a system, in close touch with local education committees and with schools. Such a system must be combined with inspection

of the schools, and, thus strengthened, may in the end lead to the adoption of something like the American accrediting system, with which the Moseley Commissioners were much impressed. In this the universities admit pupils to matriculation on certificates from certain high schools that their pupils have followed an approved four years' course satisfactorily. The universities inspect the schools and are in touch with them. This system would do away with all external pass examinations, and would leave only those necessary for the award of scholarships, to which we shall refer later.

The system of school leaving certificates, established by the University of London, is an interesting step in the association of the school with the university examinations.

Inspection.

To use examination of pupils as tests of the efficiency of a school and the professional merits and successes of teachers is now generally disapproved. Public opinion is beginning to realise that such a test is faulty and inaccurate, as well as injurious. The best work that schools do cannot be tested except by life. At the same time it is considered that when public money is given in grants to schools, there must be some external test to ascertain whether the schools are efficient. This is quite reasonable, and at present, and possibly in the future also, necessary.

The plan now followed is termed Inspection. Independent persons either (*a*) officials of the Board of Education, or (*b*) of the local education authority, or (*c*) appointed by a university or other body which undertakes inspection, visit a school, hear lessons, investigate the curriculum, rules, and the organisation generally; go over the building and equipment, and, if they wish, examine the pupils and look over the records. They meet the teachers, head and assistants, in conference and individually, and make a formal written report to the governors or other authority owning

the school, sometimes holding a conference with them also. Such a process is very searching and thorough; inefficiency and slackness will not escape it. If the officials, the inspectors, be, as indeed they are in general, broad-minded and experienced men and women, they will judge the school not according to narrow, hide-bound, ossified formulæ, but will give it credit for what it does in its own way to meet the needs of its own area. By this system the waste of public money in grants to undeserving useless institutions is prevented, and those schools that may be relaxing their efforts, or through ignorance are below a proper standard, can be brought up to the mark. A good system of inspection provides a guarantee to the public and to parents, and may have an excellent influence on the schools themselves.

The actual inspection is of course a very real trial and strain to the staff of a school at the time, but it is one of the trials incident to our profession, and the strain may be minimised, as it often is, by wise arrangements and kindly sympathy. It is no worse than manœuvres or a great field day in the army, which probably few company officers or men enjoy. A big inspection, which may last a week, such as those of the Board of Education, should not take place often; once in every three or four years is often enough, if there is provision for some minor inspection in between, and if the school is in a good state. Many schools have a university inspection and examination once a year, different portions of the work being inspected in different years. This works very well, and much minimises the strain. Sometimes there is a combination of the Board of Education with a university. The Board inspector is always required for an administrative inspection, dealing with finance, constitution of the governing body, relations with administrative authorities, etc., etc. Every school which receives grants from the Board is regularly inspected

through each session by the inspector of secondary schools for that area, who makes occasional visits, with or without notice, and whose relations with the heads of the schools are generally very friendly and helpful.

Inspection indeed is a help to a school; an outside opinion is always valuable; suggestions as to improvements are made, new plans, apparatus, etc., brought to notice; the way out of difficulties which have perplexed a head mistress is shown, and reforms are made possible through the authority and influence which the report of inspection by an authoritative body naturally possesses. One hears that there are inconsiderate, harsh, and injudicious inspectors. There are certainly occasionally young and inexperienced ones. The status of the women inspectors of the Board of Education is not altogether satisfactory, and their salaries are not as high as those of the head mistresses of even smaller schools, a somewhat anomalous condition of things. Clearly, inspectors ought to be persons who have themselves taught in good schools, and who know the conditions of the schools they inspect. On the whole, however, it may be said that the system at present works well. It is suggested that the reports of inspectors should always be constructive, not merely critical, and that the parts of such reports dealing with technicalities and the merits and demerits of particular persons and forms in a school should be confidential, for the governors only; some would also recommend that the inspectors should periodically return to the classroom and serve as ordinary teachers for a time. Such a plan would have its advantages; it might be equally advantageous to head masters and head mistresses to do the same!

Scholarships.

We have seen above (pp. 3, 29) that scholarships have been for a very long time characteristic of the English system.

A scholarship is a sum of money given to a promising pupil to cover the expenses of further education. The money comes, in general, from public sources, endowments, gifts, trust funds, and recently from the national revenue and from local taxation. At present the last is by far the most important; thousands of pounds from the local rates are yearly awarded in scholarships by all the large local education committees. (Manchester, 1907-8, £14,500.)

The reasons for the system are not difficult to discern. The philosophical doctrines of social equality and political democracy which prevailed widely during the nineteenth century are accountable for the principle which has given us the well-worn metaphor of the scholarship ladder. It has been felt unconsciously, as well as consciously, that no child of ability should be debarred, through the poverty of its parents, from receiving the kind of education suited to its talents, which would enable it to rise in the world and occupy whatever position its natural powers might justify. That this democratic principle is sound, few of us would question; that it has worked for good the facts declare. In London especially, where scholarships have been given for a generation back, the results are remarkable.

But whatever be the advantage to the individual, this alone may not be considered in dealing with the disposal of public money, especially money raised by rates and taken from individuals with families, it may be, dependent on them for a good education. What must be considered is the interest, the advantage of the community; does *this* justify a scholarship system? In the present social and economic condition of our country the answer must be unhesitatingly "Yes". Scholarships are needed not so much to help individuals to rise in the world, as to secure an adequate supply of men and women of parts and learning to serve the State. We cannot afford to lose a single

boy or girl, who by a better education, through the expenditure of a few pounds of public money, can be made fit for a more difficult post in the national organisation.

Let us now turn to the administrative details, and consider the classes of scholarships. These may be considered as four: minor or junior, intermediate, major or senior, technical. Everywhere are technical scholarships in the domestic arts required for women and girls; some at fourteen, for those who will be working-men's wives, some at eighteen or so after a proper secondary education, for those who will be specialists and teachers of the domestic arts in schools. Major scholarships to the universities are necessary for specially gifted pupils at about eighteen years of age. These may well be given on the results of matriculation examinations, or as college scholarships on marked proficiency in one subject, with reasonable proficiency in a second group, at an examination *ad hoc*. This should include an English essay for all, and oral questioning. Care should be taken in the case of girls that the strain should not be too severe, and that only a few papers should be taken by any one candidate. Ability and promise, rather than actual knowledge of facts, should be rewarded, and the examiners should know how to discover these qualities.

Some experts, among them Professor Sadler, prefer the method of the London County Council, which has for years given major scholarships without examination, on consideration of the candidates' record, needs and intentions. This has worked admirably, and there have been no controversies or attacks.

It is with minor scholarships that the real difficulties begin, inasmuch as the net is thrown broadcast, as different types of schools have to be considered, as the numbers are large, and, worst of all, as it is impossible to pick out the child of real ability at twelve years of age. There is

agreement on one point, this of age; thirteen is a superior limit often; the new London scheme contemplates eleven plus as the normal period of selection. As to the method of award, there is also agreement on the point that junior or minor scholarships should not be awarded on the result of written examination only. Such a method is discredited by its failure to distinguish ability, the thing we want, from elementary knowledge or cram. A combination of three methods is necessary, nomination by head teachers, written examination, and individual selection after oral questioning. Minor or junior scholarships, if they are given to help on capable pupils, should not be limited to those in elementary schools. It appears to many of us against the public interest to limit scholarships to a particular class of children, as if all the ability and all the need were found in one kind of school. If we want to get hold of the clever children we must cast the net everywhere.

This matter leads on to another, on which the new London scheme and that of the West Riding lay great stress: the separation of the maintenance grant, if any, from the payment of school fees. "The Council's scholarships should be," it is said, "not badges of poverty, but titles of honour."

As to tenure, if the main purpose of scholarships is to pick out young people to serve the State, the tenure should be determinable or renewable, and not for a fixed term of years.

Intermediate scholarships should come at fifteen or sixteen years of age, and give two or three years more of the higher secondary education which the specially gifted boy or girl is worth for the sake of their future work, and which many parents cannot afford after sixteen, even if they can do so up to that age. In many cases the ablest girls come from the poorer middle-class homes, where a tradition of hard work and some degree of culture are

combined, or they come from the home of the superior and enlightened artisan, himself a man above the average in ability. Such girls get junior scholarships for three years, and then, too often, there is nothing to carry them on till they can get scholarships to college or elsewhere at eighteen. Their case should be provided for by a set of *intermediate* scholarships, given on a pure examination test of proficiency in secondary school subjects, and should entail an income limit, say £400 per annum, to shut out the brilliant child of the wealthier professional and mercantile families from which so many of our great men have come, like the Brownings, the Ruskins, and the Gladstones.

A careful inquiry has recently been made into the results of the English scholarship system by Professor Sadler and Mr. H. Bompas Smith, and a report on it was made to the British Association Meeting at Leicester in August, 1907. The following extracts are particularly true of girls:—

The new regulations for the payment of Government grants to secondary schools may greatly affect the present situation. But the scholarship system has, at any rate, served as a useful expedient in a time of rapid social change. There is some reason to think that the offer of junior scholarships has been too profuse. Improvements in the elementary and secondary schools themselves are far more important than an indefinite increase of facilities for the transference of children from the one to the other.

The scholarship system has made the English universities, old and new, the educational goal of hundreds of students of good ability who under former conditions would have been shut out from academic studies. Many boys and some girls, of exceptional ability, have been helped forward to high academic distinction.

A large number of boys and girls from public elementary schools have been enabled by means of scholarships to obtain access to secondary schools. This has been especially the case during the last five years, in consequence of the operation of

the Education Act, 1902, and the requirements of the new regulations for the training of pupil teachers.

In some cases the provision of junior scholarships of small value has been in excess of the needs of the situation. With this has occasionally gone a tendency to fail in giving sufficiently prolonged or ample help to the handful of pupils who show very marked ability or promise.

A lopsided development has recently been given to the scholarship system through the administrative need of securing large numbers of recruits (chiefly girls) for the elementary school teaching profession. Apart from this the claims of girls are still less liberally recognised than those of boys.

The English scholarship system has worked fairly well in a rough sort of way during a period of social change and of resulting educational development. But in itself it is no sufficient substitute for a coherent system of higher education, intellectually efficient in all its grades and practically adjusted to the needs of a modern community. There is need for a more generous provision of intermediate and higher scholarships to enable pupils of special ability to complete the full course at a higher secondary school or to proceed to an institution of university rank or of advanced professional training. For girls especially, more higher scholarships are required, tenable at a variety of institutions for academic or practical study.

Methods of selection which set a premium upon cramming and lead to the neglect of the candidates' health and physique should be sternly discouraged. The best examinations now conducted for junior scholarships are confined, so far as written tests are concerned, to papers in English and arithmetic. The written examination should, where the numbers are not too great, be supplemented by a simple oral test. The examiners should also have access to the pupil's school record. Stress should always be laid upon physical fitness. Each local scholarship system should make a fair standard of physical development a condition of eligibility.

There is very little that could be added to these authoritative statements. The success of the scholarship system during the last thirty years in bringing forward able girls and women, and enabling them to qualify themselves for high professional posts, especially as teachers, is extra-

ordinary. Many have come right on from public elementary schools, through high schools, to the universities; many others, of the poorer professional classes, have been helped by intermediate and college scholarships to opportunities of distinction and public service. An analysis of the staff of a large high school shows that fourteen out of thirty-seven mistresses (38 per cent.) have held scholarships of one kind or another, school, college, or post-graduate; the majority of these ladies would have found it impossible to proceed so far without the aid of scholarships. Family resources are not so fully available for girls as for boys; the boys must come first and more be spent on them. This is reasonable, as men are paid better than women, and have many more careers open to them, apart from the fact that marriage closes a girl's career. But the nation needs qualified and able women workers, especially as teachers, and women may confidently claim that the record of what has already been done justifies further provision of scholarships for the needs of girls, especially in higher secondary and university education.

For a full account of University local examinations see Max Leclerc, *L'Education en Angleterre*, chaps. xvii. and xviii.

CHAPTER XIII.

DIRECT PREPARATION FOR PRACTICAL LIFE, ESPECIALLY IN THE HOME.

THE question of including in the girls' secondary school curriculum subjects of a definitely practical character has of late come prominently before the public.

The teaching of cookery and the domestic arts to girls of every class is advocated on national grounds, as is the teaching of military drill and marksmanship to boys. The emergence of this view is of great interest philosophically. It has a scientific, biological basis, the idea that there are specialised functions in practical life for which the sexes should be separately prepared in the school—functions so basic in national existence that the State is not safe unless its young people are specially trained to fulfil them efficiently. It is the natural duty of a man to defend his country in war, and he must be trained as a boy for this natural and inevitable duty; it is the natural duty of a woman to do housework, and she must learn it at school. There is something to be said for this view, as readers of H. G. Wells' *Anticipations* know; it is a striking example of a return to older ideas, brought about by scientific views as to the duty of citizens to the community. Both ideas are socialistic, inasmuch as the good of the social organism is considered, and the development of the individual is not the educational end, but the fitting of the individual for a special work to the community.

It may be noticed, however, that as a rule girls enjoy

lessons in the domestic arts, as boys enjoy the work of a cadet corps. Such subjects appeal to race experiences in them, and race memories of activities which each sex has followed for ages—from beyond the dawn of history.

But here the question must be dealt with not so much in its sociological as in its educational bearings. If we grant that every girl should learn how to manage a house, and especially how to cook and clean, is it necessary she should learn this at school? Here is the parting of the ways; some experts say no; some authorities say yes; the condition of the homes is such that she will not learn it otherwise. This is true, alas, at present, of many homes of the poorer class, where girls, as soon as they leave school, or even before, become wage-earners, where their mothers may be ignorant, improvident, or out at work themselves. It is, curiously enough, true of many homes at the other end of the social scale, where the elaboration and luxury of household organisation, and the social duties and pleasures of upper-class mothers, make it difficult, if not impossible, for their girls to learn domestic arts at home.

In the majority of middle-class and superior artisan homes neither of these conditions obtains; girls in such homes can help, many are obliged to help, in the details of household management, and many of the mothers retain the tradition of sound household economy, and are not only qualified to teach their girls how to make a home comfortable and happy, but are the best persons to do so.[1] There is thus not the same urgency in secondary schools for making domestic teaching compulsory. The

[1] "La vie du foyer, la tutelle de la mère, lui semblaient indispensable pour leur développement physique et moral. C'est de la vie de famille qu'elles doivent vivre. La seulement, elles puiseront les examples d'affection et de dévouement qui sont pour les femmes le devoir de tous les jours. . . . Il n'est qu'elle (la mère) qui par l'exemple puisse préparer sa fille à ses devoirs de femme et de mère."—*Gréard, un moraliste educateur.* M. P. Bourgain, Paris, 1907.

day school, as we have seen, was founded to combine the influences of school and home on a girl's education. It can do much which the home cannot do. Why should it interfere with what is the mother's province, the home education for which time is left in the weekly free Saturday and in the holidays? It may be noted that the whole Saturday holiday was given originally in the Frances Mary Buss School that the girl might help her mother in the Saturday morning household tasks, marketing in particular.

It has thus happened that organised teaching in the domestic arts for girls was not originally part of the high school tradition in England. The pioneer women, themselves truly womanly, and skilful in household arts did not ignore or undervalue such teaching, but they did not think it their business. That their instinct was at least in part correct is proved by the action of some mothers of high school girls to-day, who declare definitely and firmly they *do not* want their girls to be taught the domestic arts in school. "I can teach her these," says such a one. "While she is at school, I wish her to learn what I cannot teach her." It is not one head mistress or one type of school that hears such declarations.

Nevertheless, it has become both necessary and desirable to include the domestic arts in the curriculum of a secondary school for girls, and during the last few years very remarkable steps have been taken in this direction. There are three reasons for this. Chief is the fact that the school has claimed more and more of the girls' time, and left less for the home. This is in part due to the raising of the standards, and the greater amount of work done now than was done thirty years ago, when the writer was a girl in a high school; it is in part due to the introduction of games and similar social occupations. Saturday morning hockey and field club walks encroach on the time a girl used to have to go marketing with her

mother. The school girl to-day has her energies taken up with all sorts of interests and pleasures that divert her from regularly darning the family stockings or "getting up" the fine linen and laces of the household—tasks high school girls did in the early days. So the school must do something to redress the balance. Thus we come to the second, and philosophically the most important, reason for giving this teaching at school.

So great is the influence of the school nowadays over a girl, that if a subject or group of activities is left out of school organisation it is likely to be forgotten or even despised. This does not happen with boys; they have wider interests, are less docile, less submissive to their teachers' personality, less imitative than girls; their teachers, at least in a day school, live lives more nearly resembling those of the normal human being than is the case with school mistresses. A girl's teacher is, in general, a student and a spinster—not a woman leading the normal ordinary woman's life; a woman who too often is not living in a home at all, even as sister or daughter. This tends to distort the girl's ideas, and makes her think that she too would be a teacher, and live this abnormal life. If the subjects studied and the influence of the school are all of an academic type, there is thus a distinct tendency for the girl to think less of home arts and home duties, to neglect the opportunities she has of learning these at home. Now if, on the other hand, the domestic arts occupy an honourable place in the school curriculum, if the teachers of cookery, laundry, and dressmaking are on a level personally and officially with other assistant mistresses, if there are opportunities of distinction, prizes, scholarships, things to do for the school, in this department, then *all* the girls realise, even if they are not in the department themselves, that these subjects are essential parts of a woman's education, honourable, and honouring

those who pursue them. An interesting illustration was given of this effect the other day, when the head prefect of a certain high school, having won a brilliant scholarship at Cambridge in March, devoted part of her time till July to cookery and dressmaking in the technical department.

A third reason—the same as one reason for introducing manual work into a boy's curriculum—is that the subject rouses the interest and develops the intelligence of certain pupils to whom ordinary school studies do not appeal. The girl wakes up, becomes more orderly and less troublesome, acquires a new self-respect. The rest of her work feels the impulse for good, and her whole nature seems vivified and energised. Again and again one sees the failures and the idlers in other forms become excellent and public-spirited members of the technical department, because they have found their vocation.

These three reasons are educational, in addition to the sociological one mentioned at the beginning of the chapter. A fifth may be subjoined, one of expediency. The pupils stay longer in school if they have the opportunity of studying technical subjects. There are many girls who have no college ambitions or professional future, who lose interest in school when they get to be about sixteen years of age; their parents do not see why they should remain at school; there is nothing very definite for them to do, and they are not intended to earn their own living. Yet there is much more in general culture which they could profitably learn, and the influence and life of the school would do much for them now they are older, for the last years are indeed the best. It is found in practice that such girls will stay on at school if there is a housewifery course provided for them, where they carry on their general education half their time, and take the domestic arts the other half.

In the Manchester High School such a course was organised in the year 1900, and now includes over thirty

girls, many of whom rank as an upper fifth form. In 1906 there was a demand for a second year's course for girls seventeen to eighteen years of age. This leads directly to a technical college for training teachers of the domestic arts.

The Girls' Public Day Schools Trust has similar courses in several of its schools, which are attended by old pupils also.[1] At the Croydon High School girls must be seventeen before they join the course, and some fifth form girls have taken it; there it includes lectures on first-aid and home nursing by a lady doctor.

The plan of studies in the Manchester High School is as follows:—

General Subjects.	Periods.	Technical Subjects.	Periods.
Scripture and Address	2	Cookery	3
English	3	Laundry	3
History	2	Hygiene	2
French	3	Domestic Science	2
Arithmetic	2	Dressmaking	2
German (Optional)	3	Housewifery (1st year) / Household Mending (2nd year)	2
Total	15	Total	14

Final Total 27 to 30 Periods.

One or two compulsory afternoon sessions are required.

Girls must have reached a fourth form before they enter the department. The tendency is for them to have reached an upper fourth. Thus the technical forms rank as lower fifth and upper fifth. It is most important that the technical mistresses should take other subjects with the girls, *e.g.* history and English, and should serve as ordinary mistresses, being form mistresses to the technical girls. Until this was done the experiment was not nearly as successful as it is now. With a visiting mistress for cookery, etc., it would be a failure. The housewifery girls help in the preparation for all school parties and functions, and

[1] See especially the Clapham, the Blackheath, and the Streatham High Schools.

their services are always gratefully acknowledged; they show remarkable public spirit in this way. They do not play games as a rule, since they have so much other physical work, but they are keen over horticulture.

It will be evident that this technical course comes at the end of a girl's school career, when her general training fits her to profit by it; it corresponds with the teaching in cookery, etc., given to girls in the upper standards of public elementary schools and to the special technical courses in the domestic arts for girls of fourteen who have just left the primary school, organised by the London County Council, the Manchester Education Committee, and some other local authorities. Some head mistresses, indeed, think a girl should take a course at a technical school or college when she is seventeen or eighteen, and has left the ordinary high school altogether.

On the other hand, some governors and head mistresses of girls' secondary schools make cookery compulsory; they introduce it at fourteen or so, for a year, and some add dressmaking. In municipal schools, with a compulsory afternoon session, it is quite usual for the girls to have cookery and dressmaking in their regular course of studies, as the boys have woodwork and ironwork. In these schools there is not so much done on the literary side as in the ordinary high school. In the middle school of the south of England, too, these subjects are found in the ordinary curriculum. To this some of the head mistresses of such schools strongly object; their girls have, for the most part, to earn their own living, and since domestic service is not so organised as to offer a career to the lower middle-class girl, and since she is certain to help at home with the housework, the subject is of no special use to her. She has to prepare for the Civil Service, for pupil teacherships, and similar careers, and the compulsory cookery, etc., in school takes up time which is wanted for other

things. If domestic service could be so modified as to offer, like nursing, an attractive and honourable career to girls in such schools, the head mistresses would gladly establish special departments when girls could be carefully trained in the domestic arts during their last two years in school (fifteen and sixteen years of age).

Another class, former pupils of the costly type of new boarding schools like St. Andrews, have been known to regret deeply the omission of the domestic arts from their school curriculum; it is significant that in the advertisements of expensive private boarding schools to-day, cookery and housewifery appear along with games and gymnastics. It would seem as if the wealthy girl needed to have these subjects taught her in school.

We have treated at length this very important question, the more fully as it is at present one of those exciting strong public interest; the plan of an optional housewifery course, one or two years in duration, at the end of a girl's school career between sixteen and eighteen years of age, will, we believe, in ordinary high school conditions, be found the best solution.

There are three other technical courses on which something might well be said, though they are not of national importance. One may be called the "Arts and Crafts"; it would admit of specialisation in artistic industries like book-binding, embroidery, and some kinds of metal work; it should include some science, chemistry perhaps, and the history of art. It might be made an excellent course, but the writer has no experience of an actual experiment. Some schools, notably Wycombe Abbey, do beautiful work in artistic industries.

Another technical course is of a less formal kind; it is for the girl who wishes to specialise in music or painting. She keeps on her modern languages, history, literature; she should be made to learn harmony or geometry, and

she needs a good deal of time for the practice of her particular art, especially if she is learning two instruments, or is every afternoon in the studio. Such a girl often cannot play games, or spoil her hands with gymnastics. One must see that she gets exercise in other ways.

The third technical course is that which prepares for direct employment in commercial or secretarial work; as we have seen, many middle schools have to prepare their girls for employment in the Civil Service or as clerks of various kinds. In Swiss girls' higher schools, notably the great Höhere Töchterschule in Zurich, is found a vigorous and large department for Handelsclassen, training girls for business, especially the characteristic Swiss hotel trade. In the Manchester High School, a secretarial department, as it is termed, has been independently developed since 1901, and has now taken its place alongside the housewifery department. The course is for two years—sixteen to eighteen—it contains about thirty pupils, who obtain posts on leaving school as private secretaries, foreign correspondents in offices, and in public and philanthropic institutions. The plan of studies is as follows, languages being more or less optional, and but few learning three languages. Whenever possible, girls are advised to begin shorthand a year before they enter the secretarial class, while they are still going on with their general education: the first year of shorthand is put in the afternoon to admit of this.

General Subjects.	Periods.	Technical Subjects.	Periods.
Scripture and Address	2	Shorthand	3-4
English	2-3	Book-keeping (1st year)	3
History (1st year)	2	Typing (2nd year)	3
History (2nd year)	1	Correspondence and Business Routine	3
Commercial Geography	1	French Correspondence	1
Arithmetic	3	German Correspondence	3
French	3	Spanish	2-3

The time-table is flexible, and is modified for individuals; the total is from twenty-six to thirty periods a week. In the second year the girls have practical experience in the school office, working under the head mistress and the secretary, and throughout the course they execute actual pieces of school secretarial work in the ordinary lessons, lists, manifolding, the making of notices, etc.

It is clear that such a system would only be called for in the schools of large cities like Manchester and Zurich. Technical departments indeed must be very closely in touch with local needs. High schools in agricultural areas might develop similar departments, specialising in rural industries while continuing general culture, and bringing the trained intelligence and enthusiasm of girls and teachers to bear on the problem of how women can employ themselves happily and profitably on the land. In the same way in a centre like Birmingham, where there is much natural artistic ability in craftsmanship, one would like to see an "Arts and Crafts" High School develop, combining technical work of that kind with literary culture and science.

The last word has not been said on girls' education. Possibly in the future, the technical departments may show us all how to reform education, how to combine the ideas of the Kindergarten as to manual training, and such principles of school activity on practical lines as Prof. Dewey worked out in the University of Chicago for junior forms,[1] with the best theories of technical education and the highest ideals of moral culture. Would that some rich and enlightened Englishman (or woman) would do for this type of girl's education what Sir William Macdonald is doing for rural schools and agricultural education in Canada! Such a power could give an English teacher (what Prof. James Robertson has had at McGill

[1] See *The School and the Child*, edited by Prof. Findlay.

University),[1] the opportunity of experimenting, free from the restraints either of State regulation or the prejudices of parents, in a field which is expensive to cultivate, as all initiative is in education, and might do much to make future generations of English women better and happier, because more useful to the nation.

[1] See *The Empire and the Century* (Murray), pp. 388, *et seq.*

CHAPTER XIV.

SOCIAL LIFE IN A DAY SCHOOL.

It is, as we have seen, a characteristic principle of English education that school is not merely a place of instruction, that the out of class activities and mutual reactions of personality are as important, in some schools even more important, than the formal teaching of school hours. It is the boarding school primarily where such an idea is most effective and vigorous; but it has been found in practice equally applicable to a day school, particularly with girls. With boys social life centres round games, and seems to need in a day school the "house" organisation, where the boys are divided up into groups, containing boys of various forms and ages, who play together and against other houses, and are under one of the staff as a house master, as if they were boarders. This is not found necessary in a girls' day school: they can have a considerable amount of valuable and helpful social life with one another and with the mistresses, without either games or "houses". As we have seen, the form spirit is, in general, strong, and one form can play against and compete with another in various ways. There is not as much difference in physical strength between older and younger forms as with boys; indeed, the younger forms are often more agile and keen.

Two conditions are, however, needful: there must be one or other; but if both can be secured, so much the better. First, there must be some societies for particular purposes, literary, dramatic, philanthropic and so forth,

which are allowed to meet after school hours, but which the girls manage themselves, guided by a mistress or two. These answer quite as well for social purposes as a games club. Second, there must be in ordinary school routine some opportunities for girls to meet and talk to their friends. The mid-morning break, "interval," "recess," "lunch-time," or whatever it is called, is one of these. Before and after school should be the same: these are very good times for seeing a mistress and getting a talk with her. The dinner hour—if girls stay—is the best time of all, especially when it is an hour and a half. In schools where there are these opportunities there are formed, from time to time, among the older girls, little groups and coteries like those one reads of among boys and young men at the public schools and at college. They may not be as distinguished as the group which, led by Praed, founded the well-known magazine at Eton, or as the famous "Apostles" at Cambridge, but they are just as successful in increasing the humanising influences and the comradeship of student life. Friendships thus formed sometimes continue into middle age.

There are some schools whose tradition is against social life among the girls, as we have stated in Chapter XI.: these forbid conversations before and after school, and do not encourage school societies. Some mothers also prefer that their daughters should make friends only in connection with their home circle: these would not care for their girls to stay for school dinner or to join school socieites, and their wishes must, of course, be respected.

It must, however, be clearly stated that to-day, whatever may have been the case formerly, mistresses share in the social life of the girls, even in a day school. They meet as friends, and while proper respect is paid to the superior, the older and abler woman, there is not the great gulf fixed that there was in the earlier days. The opinion

of the best authorities is strong and unfaltering in this matter: the out of class influence is as important, some say more important, than the lessons. A mistress is expected to share in the social life, as she is expected to prepare her lessons and correct her papers, though the actual amount of what she does in these respects is left to her own good sense and professional honour. As an example of a strong view, we may quote from a letter by a distinguished modern headmaster; there is much truth in it.

> The lesson idea is narrow, ignoble, because anti-social; it only gives a chance to about 10 per cent. or at most 15 per cent. A horticultural exhibit is a better lesson in primitive history than any battle or king business. It is acting over again a bit of race history, traversing the road by which we came. It is something the girls did with you and for their school with a common object and a common spirit. And doing things, catching the idea, entering into it and working it out for themselves is far better training than translating somebody else's ideas or doing sums. It has so much more meaning to them.

This general statement will fit many kinds of social activity; it is not needful for every school to have every kind, and it is very bad for any individual girl or mistress to belong to too many societies, to scatter her energies and fill up her time. A mistress may be expected to take an interest in two, or even three, working hard at one in particular; a girl may reasonably belong to two societies—four is too many. One must always remember that the girl has her home and her home duties and joys. She must not be taken away from family life, from being with her father and brothers at the close of the day and the week-ends, from going out with her mother and helping her. The head should not allow too many meetings in a term, and should watch carefully against excessive absorption in school social life; one has to be disagreeable over this, cut down the hours of meetings, as well as the number of them, and seem to deprive the girls of opportunities of pleasure;

but life is not all cakes and ale. This limitation is good for the mistresses also; being with the girls out of school may add considerably to the burden of their work. Some find it much harder than teaching; others take it as a recreation, happily for them. It is certainly very good for the girls to meet their mistresses out of class; the whole relation becomes more human and the child is much more likely to confide in a teacher and notice what she says. Mistresses who play games well have a strong influence with the girls, and are generally very popular. They also gain a valuable insight into character.

The organisation of these out-of-class activities should be as largely as possible in the hands of the girls; the experience of doing this is most valuable to them in many ways. They should be obliged to conduct their societies properly, keep minute books and accounts, and elect their officers legally. It is often wise for a mistress to be treasurer. If the society is really large and affects most of the school it is well to have an annual general meeting in due form, with chairman, agenda, audited accounts, secretary's report, and so forth. Some schools take a short period of actual school time for this once a year, in the case of the games and of the school philanthropic society. It is worth doing as a lesson in citizenship. Officers should be elected, not nominated, as this prevents ill-feeling and possible suspicions of favouritism. If girls can be trusted to have a society they will do the right thing in asking mistresses whether they will be kind enough to serve as officers. It is, however, necessary that, formally or informally, the head must be in touch with all the societies, and free to come to any, at any time, if she wishes. Subscriptions should always be *small*, and members should feel that to work for a society is the important thing.

The most usual societies in schools are the Games' Club, Literary and Debating Societies, and the Field Club for

natural history. The school magazine generally has a committee of girls who run it more or less by themselves. Scripture Union, German, Classical, and Dramatic Societies are also formed in some schools. Every school has its own peculiarities. In the Manchester High School, *e.g.*, a debating society has never succeeded, a dramatic society would be forbidden, and the literary societies arise in particular forms, flourish, and fade out. But, whatever the others may be, there is one kind of society every secondary school ought to have—the philanthropic. This is essential, not only as a training for service to the community afterwards, but for the sake of the girls themselves, to take them out of their absorption in school concerns. There are many examples of school societies: the Winchester Mission at Portsmouth, where Robert Dolling worked; the Hugh Oldham Lads' Club, supported and managed by the Manchester Grammar School; the East London Settlement of the Cheltenham Ladies' College. We cannot all do such great things as these, but every school and every girl can do something. She can give time and effort if she cannot give money. Indeed the giving of money by well-to-do girls, useful as the money is, has little educative effect, unless the gift is a sacrifice. Girls should be trained to this; the system of self-denial weeks is very good for the purpose, so long as what the individual gives is given privately. They need a little advice sometimes as to where one can save without injury to oneself or injustice to others.

There should always be some actual work done, lest young people should think they can discharge the obligation of helping their poorer brethren by a mere subscription. Girls can sew, mend and make toys for sick children, write to cripples, and so forth. It is found that they can even visit under the supervision of the Local Nursing Association, or a mistress experienced in such work. The society

must of course be conducted like the others, on business lines, and the audit of accounts should be thorough.

School visits and journeys afford pleasant and valuable opportunities for social intercourse. Visits to museums, picture galleries, libraries, parks, etc., are now used for formal study in school hours; these need careful planning, and at least one teacher to fifteen pupils, if time is not to be wasted and too much desultory talk occur; a teacher to ten pupils is better. A day's excursion may go more freely, but here again one teacher cannot look after more than twenty girls. An actual journey involving the provision of sleeping accommodation needs careful organising and smaller numbers; if it can be arranged, it is very valuable. Such visits to London, Oxford, Cambridge, for special historical study, lasting four to five days, have been extraordinarily educative and inspiring. Some teachers have organised visits to Paris and Switzerland in vacations.

The school camps in vacation, which are so good for boys and give them such excellent moral training, are quite unnecessary for girls. They should spend their vacations with their families, or with relatives. They have to look after the little ones, or fulfil womanly duties to the aged; they may well keep house for mother, so that she may have a holiday, part of the time. The long vacation, too, and even the short ones, give a girl time to look after her clothes, to make and mend, as sailors do at sea on Sundays. Girls do not need the training a camp gives; it is off the line of their natural development and takes them away from their homes. School gardening and school horticultural shows are not open to the same objection; they interest a girl in home arts, and may enlist the sympathy and help of other members of the family in the girl's leisure interests.

The relation of old pupils to their school is an important part of its social life; they often continue their membership of particular school societies, especially charit-

able ones, or they form organisations of their own. Most high schools have an old girls' association, under that name or some other; these meet periodically for some social function (accompanied generally by tea), or for lectures, dramatic performances, concerts, etc. They often undertake some special philanthropic work, independent of the present girls, especially when many have leisure, like the Cheltenham old girls in the college settlement in East London. Such associations may become very strong and vigorous; their meetings are always interesting, sometimes touching, especially in the older schools where there are many generations of alumnæ. This word alumnus, alumna, ought to become part of the language; it is better than the clumsy English phrases old boy, old girl. We understand the thing well enough—we ought to have a proper name for it.

His Majesty the King, with his wonderful gift for saying the right phrase at the right time, put the matter exactly once and for all, in his recent speech at the opening of the new buildings of University College School in London. Every word of it is true for many a girls' school.

> One of the finest features of English life has always seemed to me the love borne to their old school by pupils who have long since left its shelter and have fought the battle of life either in their own country or in far-distant lands. They always refer to their school with affection. All their life they will feel the influence of the teachings which they received in early days.

In the case of women there is a relation of peculiar tenderness when a mother enters her daughter in her own old school, to be taught sometimes by the same teachers, to go to and fro in the same building, to sit on the same benches in hall, to be a "School Grandchild" as the phrase goes. Such girls are attached to the school by a bond of special strength; their honours and successes give a double joy. When the school is old enough for them to come, it may indeed claim to have a tradition.

School tradition is an impalpable thing, evasive, hard to formulate, but very very real. It takes time to form, and it changes very slowly. It is worthy of all respect, and none, not even a new head, should lay hands lightly upon it.

It has a spirit and a body. The building and the ritual of daily life are its body; such things as the labels on the books, the time-honoured fashions of moving through the passages and up the staircase, the names of bits of technique peculiar to the place. School colours and badges symbolise it; school songs give it utterance, and echo in the memory when school days are done. The assembly hall, with its memorials of the past, and its associations of dignity and beauty, is the focus of all these outward manifestations. Its spirit passes from girl to girl, form to form, from one sixth to another, preserving strange customs hard to eradicate, asserting privileges not laid down in any book of rules, steeping new girls in its ideals and its ways. Changing as it goes, yet always itself,

Labitur, et labetur in omne volubilis ævum.

It is voluble enough, in the English meaning of the word, at a girls' school. Speech has much to do with making it; the talk that, day in and day out, flows from mistress to girl, and girl to her comrades. Deeds, too, shape tradition; a series of successes in classics or in mathematics; the gift of a fine playground; the spending of school money on a good library; some great occasion in the school's history; even the chances and changes of each term. Tradition is the deposit of personality; we all help to make it, for good or for evil, each in our order, in proportion to our native vitality and power. Girls and teachers come and go, but they leave something behind them when their turn comes to say farewell.

Non omnis moriar, multaque pars mei
Vitabit Libitinam.

. . . . . .

No one can be more conscious than is the author, of the inadequacy of these pages, written in the scanty leisure of busy professional days, to deal worthily with a worthy theme. The whole subject bristles with difficulties; it is involved with the philosophy and the economics of national life. Education is a vague science, and an art whose material is living, growing, willing, all the while, an art as yet indeterminate, for which indeed fixed rules and methods may for ever be impossible. We are dealing with minds; we must act on them by our own personalities; and who shall enunciate with precision the equations connecting such complex variables, and what yet undiscovered calculus will solve them? But we may nevertheless study the principles of our art, as does the painter his ever-evasive problems of light and colour, values and atmosphere, or the actor and the musician his difficulties of technique. The art of the teacher touches these arts on some sides, as it touches the calling of the warrior on others. Organisation, discipline, management, the nameless faculty of so handling human beings as to get the best out of them of which they are capable—all these we have in common with the sergeant-major and the admiral. It should be true of the true teacher, "He learns to make men like him, so they'll learn to like their work". But the officer uses men as tools only; in our calling they are themselves the end; we shape them for their own perfection. Thus it is with the physician and the divine that the truest analogies of our craft are to be found, those noble arts of the healer of the body and the healer of the soul, whose marching orders are truth, self-sacrifice, and aspiration, whose ideals have been formulated for ever in phrases of more than mortal beauty and power.

I will very gladly spend and be spent for you.

Follow Me, and I will make you fishers of men.

APPENDIX A.

GREAT AND USEFUL SAYINGS ON EDUCATION.

THE fear of the Lord, that is wisdom; and to depart from evil is understanding.—BOOK OF JOB.

Ye shall know the truth, and the truth shall make you free.—GOSPEL OF JOHN.

To engraft and sow in a congenial soul words which will be able to help themselves and him who planted them, words which are not unfruitful, but have in them seeds which may bear fruit in other natures, nurtured in other ways—making the seed everlasting, and the possessors happy to the utmost limit of human happiness.—PLATO, "PHÆDRUS".

Shall we not rather seek out those craftsmen who are able, by a happy gift, to follow in its footsteps the nature of the graceful and beautiful; that as if living in a healthy region the young men may be the better for it all, from whichsoever of the beautiful works a something may strike upon their seeing or their hearing, like a breeze bearing health from wholesome places; bringing them unconsciously from early childhood both to likeness and to friendship or harmony with the law of beauty?—PLATO, "REPUBLIC".

True education, almost insuperably difficult in practice, had been often defined in words. Plato told us long ago how it was music for the soul and gymnastic for the body, both intended for the benefit of the soul, how it was a life-long process, how good manners were a branch of it and poetry its principal part, though the poets were but poor educators, how great was the importance of good surroundings, how the young should be reared in wholesome pastures and be late learners of evil, if

they must learn it at all, how nothing mean or vile should meet the eye or strike the ear of the young, how in infancy education should be through pleasurable interest, how dangerous it was when ill directed, how it was not so much a process of acquisition as the use of powers already existing in us, not the filling of a vessel, but turning the eye of the soul towards the light, how it aimed at ideals and was intended to promote virtue, and was the first and fairest of all things.—Bishop of Hereford on Plato.

I call a complete and generous education that which fits a man to perform justly, skilfully and magnanimously all the offices to the public and private, of peace and war.—John Milton.

The great wish of a governor is to fashion the carriage and form the mind; to settle in his pupil good habits and the principles of virtue and wisdom; to give him, by little and little, a view of mankind; and work him into a love and imitation of what is excellent and praiseworthy; and in the prosecution of it, to give him vigour, activity and industry.—John Locke.

No, real knowledge, like everything else of the highest value, is not to be obtained so easily. It must be worked for—studied for—thought for—and, more than all, it must be prayed for. And that is education, which lays the foundation of such habits, and gives them, so far as a boy's early age will allow, their proper exercise.

. . . . . .

Every man has two businesses; the one his own particular profession or calling, the other his general calling, which he has in common with all his neighbours, namely, the calling of a citizen and a man. The education which fits him for the first of these two businesses is called professional; that which fits him for the second is called liberal.—Thomas Arnold of Rugby.

To prepare us for complete living is the function which education has to discharge.—Herbert Spencer.

In the education either of the lower or upper classes, it matters not the least how much or how little they know, pro-

vided they know just what will fit them to do their work and be happy in it. A man is only educated if he is happy, busy, beneficent and effective in the world.—JOHN RUSKIN.

The prime and direct aim of instruction is to enable a man to know himself and the world. Such knowledge is the only sure basis for action, and this basis it is the true aim and office of instruction to supply.—MATTHEW ARNOLD.

True education is nothing less than bringing everything that men have learnt, from God or from experience, to bear first upon the moral or spiritual being by means of a well-governed society and healthy discipline, so that it should love and hate aright; and through this, secondly, making the body and intellect perfect, as instruments necessary for carrying on the work of progress; training the character, the intellect, the body, each through the means adapted to each. This is the object of education; and all the work of discipline and self-government, of exercising the intellect, of exercising the body, go on at once, and in a good system mutually support each other in their appointed places. But all this requires time.—EDWARD THRING.

The most precious gift of education is not the mastery of the sciences, but noble living, generous character, the spiritual delight which springs from familiarity with the loftiest ideals of the human mind, the spiritual power which saves every generation from the intoxication of its own success.—GEORGE WILLIAM CURTIS.

If education cannot be identified with mere instruction, what is it? . . . it must mean a gradual adjustment to the spiritual possessions of the race.—NICHOLAS MURRAY BUTLER.

The education of the child is the bringing of him up in such a way as to secure that when he is a man he will fulfil his true life—not merely his life as an industrial worker, not merely his life as a citizen, but his own personal life through his work and through his citizenship.—LAURIE.

Le but de l'instruction secondaire n'est pas d'obtenir le rendement maximum pendant que cette instruction dure, c'est-à-dire entre neuf et dix-huit ans, mais d'assurer le rendement

maximum pendent la période qui suit, période de plein et utile labeur qui dure autant que la vie.—EMILE BOUTMY.

Nous aimons à nous imaginer celle qu'il s'agit de créer, sous la figure de ces statues antiques que Fénelon représente dans toute la sève de la vie, le port élégant et ferme, la démarche modeste et aisée, le front éclairé par la pensée et le sourire aux lèvres."—OCTAVE GRÉARD (1828-1904) on the Ideal of Women's Education.

Notre premier devoir est d'exiger de l'enseignement secondaire qu'il maintienne, dans l'ordre spéculatif, l'excellence du génie national. La haute culture, qui peut être un luxe pour l'individu, n'est pas un luxe pour la nation. C'est la première et la plus impérieuse des nécessités.—COUYBA, "RAPPORT GÉNÉRAL OF 1899".

The enkindling of the intellectual soul is our task.—A. C. BENSON.

To be wholly devoted to some intellectual exercise is to have succeeded in life.—R. L. STEVENSON.

Education does not mean handing on parcels of knowledge to other people. It means kindling intellectual interests.

Our aim in education should be to get a power of self-adjustment, to keep alive the spirit of adventure, to inculcate a readiness to do drudgery, and above all things to form judgment and character. We need an education which opens the mind and trains the practical aptitudes; which inspires courage and faith and fortitude, while also imparting knowledge and the scientific way of looking at things, and the scientific way of doing things; which opens up new opportunities and at the same time cultivates the intellectual and moral powers by means of which alone these opportunities can be seen and seized. . . .

We do not live for ourselves alone. Upon each individual life the community have in times of stress and danger their paramount claims; and it is the business of a good education to make boys and girls sensitive to these claims, in order that when they come to man's and woman's estate they may be ready with intelligent and large-minded unselfishness to sacrifice,

when necessary, narrow personal interests to those which are social and national. Nor can any education accomplish this unless it has regard to those deeper sources of human endurance and of self-sacrifice, whence come the faith and insight which fortify character and enlighten its ideals.—MICHAEL E. SADLER.

APPENDIX B.

ASSOCIATION OF HEAD MISTRESSES.

THE TRUE COST OF SECONDARY EDUCATION FOR GIRLS.

II.

The Cost of Building, Equipment and Maintenance of Secondary Schools.

The Board of Education's recent Regulations for the Training of Pupil Teachers will necessitate the opening of many new secondary schools, both in London and in other large centres of population, and in the smaller towns which make convenient centres for country districts.

The Executive Committee of the Association of Head Mistresses has, by desire of the Association, collected from numerous secondary schools statistics as to the present cost of secondary education for girls. A pamphlet dealing with the salaries of Assistant Mistresses in Secondary Schools has been published by the Association; and it has been thought that a short paper dealing with the cost of building, equipment and maintenance of schools of different sizes may serve a useful purpose now, when Education Committees are employed in organising secondary education.

The subject presents itself in two main aspects:—

(A) Initial Costs.

(B) Yearly Outlays.

Under (A) there would appear:—

(*a*) Original price of site.

(*b*) Price of building.

(*c*) Price of furniture and fittings :—

(i) General School Furniture and Apparatus, including fittings of cloakrooms and lavatories; desks, tables, chairs, blackboards; shelving and cupboards; gymnasium fittings; furniture for Head Mistress' office and Assistant Mistresses' rooms and library; fire apparatus.

(ii) Special School Furniture, etc., *viz.* : Science, Art, Music, Domestic and Workshop equipment.

(iii) Books to form nucleus of Library.

Under (B) (Yearly Outlay) there appears :—

(*a*) Upkeep :—

(i) Of Building :—

(*a*) Painting and repairs, and depreciation allowance. (These would vary from year to year.)

(*b*) Insurance premium.

(ii) Of Furniture and Apparatus :—

(*a*) Depreciation allowance, or renewal, and improvements.

(*β*) Public Burdens :—

(i) Rates, (ii) Taxes } No general statement could be made. This could always be settled in individual cases, and any general statement would only be misleading.

(*γ*) Working Expenses (Non-Educational) :—

(i) Office salaries, Auditor's fee, etc.

(ii) Stationery and postage.

(iii) Heating, lighting and water.

(iv) Cleaning materials.

(v) Household wages.

(vi) Advertisements (if any).

(*δ*) Working Expenses (Educational) :—

(i) Salaries of Mistresses (without extra fees) :—

(*a*) Head.

(*b*) Assistants.

(ii) Examination and Inspection.

Prizes (if any).

Obviously, it is impossible to make a general statement as regards A (*a*). With reference to A (*b*), the Regulations of the Board of Education for Secondary Schools, defining the requisite floor space per pupil as 18 square feet, must be borne in mind. An interesting calculation has been furnished by an expert, showing how the approximate cost may theoretically be worked out, given certain data, and showing that in London the present cost per pupil for the building alone is probably rather over £50. The calculation for the total floor space per pupil is made as follows:—

	Sq. Ft.
Classroom	18
Hall	8
Lecture theatre, art room and laboratory	7
Cloakrooms, etc.	4
Dining-room (allowing for only 20 per cent. of the pupils)	2
Library	2
Teachers' rooms	2
Kitchen, caretaker, etc.	2
Total	45
Added for walls and corridors 30 per cent.	14
Gross total per pupil	59

Measuring externally from the footings to half-way up the span roof, we take a *height* of 38 feet for a two-storeyed building, *or* 19 *feet per storey*. This assumes that the site affords a good foundation, so that the footings are not unreasonably deep, and includes for each storey the height of the room, the thickness of the floor, a quarter of the height of the roof and half the depth of the footings. To find the *cubic contents* to be priced per foot, take the total floor area per pupil and multiply by 19. According to the plan of the building, as regards the height of the hall and the position of certain smaller rooms on a mezzanine floor, the estimate can be modified. If we deduct 1 square foot per pupil for the mezzanine rooms, and add 75 per cent. of the hall floor space, we get an area of (59 − 1 + 6) square feet = 64 square feet. Then the cubic contents will be 64 ×

19 cubic feet = 1,216 cubic feet. Pricing this at 10d. per cubic foot, the result is £50 13s. 4d. per pupil. This does not allow of any expensive fittings at London prices. It is exclusive of the cost of site and of enclosing the playground, but it should cover the heating, lighting and drainage work.

By making certain omissions such as an allowance for the Library and providing less space for the Science and Art Rooms, the reduction made would lower the cost to about £42 per pupil. If a higher standard of building and equipment be adopted, the price may rise to over £100 per pupil.

For example, the estimate for the buildings for an important first grade school in London was recently calculated to be between £105 and £110 per pupil. Another school building, very fully equipped, has cost about £109 per pupil. We understand that in some country districts the Board of Education's requirements would call for an expenditure of about £75 per pupil.

We are, however, of opinion that the provision on this ample scale of 18 square feet in the classroom is not necessary, and is somewhat excessive where there is also adequate provision of hall and laboratory.

Regarding A (*c*) information is not readily obtainable, the majority of schools now in full working order having been furnished many years ago, and replenished at intervals. We give the following as a *rough estimate* founded on facts supplied by a recently established London school :—

	Per Pupil. £ s. d.
[1] General School Furniture	4 4 0
Special School Furniture—	
[2] Science	0 19 8
[2] Art	0 2 10
Domestic	0 12 0
Total	£5 18 6

[1] No allowance made for pianos for the music rooms, but an instrument for the hall included.

[2] Estimating that only 75 per cent. of the pupils take these subjects.

Contrasted with the above, we have the following set of figures from a country school where a local carpenter was available:—

	Per Pupil. £ s. d.
General School Furniture	2 14 8
Special School Furniture—	
Science	0 2 9
Art	0 4 6
Domestic	0 1 5
Workshop	0 6 0
	£3 9 4

The conditions under which the furniture for this particular school was made, though peculiar, are probably not unique, and the method may serve as a suggestion for similarly placed schools. We also have an inclusive estimate from a country school for £4 10s. per pupil.

As regards B (δ), Working Expenses (Educational), the appointment of a head mistress before the school is ready for occupation will, in many cases, ensure economy in equipment. The presence on the Committee of an expert of several years' practical teaching experience, and with an intimate knowledge of the necessary educational and hygienic equipment of a school, goes far to prevent useless expenditure.

The Committee assumes that the conditions recommended by themselves for girls' schools prevail, and that lessons are given only in the morning, and that one teacher, including specialists, is allowed for every twenty pupils. If teaching be regularly given in the afternoon too, the same staff would serve with necessarily larger classes, or the staff would have to be increased. Four "lessons" per morning, making an average of twenty per week, are considered sufficient for each teacher, seeing that time must be allowed for the preparation of lessons and the correction of papers. Mr. Fabian Ware, on "The Prussian Teacher of Modern Languages," in *Special Reports on Modern Language Teaching*, p. 546, states that in Prussia

in hardly any school is the teacher allowed to give more than twenty lessons a week. Nobody can accuse the Germans of possessing less power of endurance than the English, and yet it is considered by the former that a teacher of modern languages cannot exceed this number of weekly lessons with any chance of success. The general opinion is that even this number is too great; and I was informed that probably, owing to the representations of many experts, it would in the near future be reduced to eighteen.

In calculating the staff needed in schools of different sizes it is assumed that these considerations are regarded, and that importance is attached to the individual work *done at home* by the pupils and examined by the mistress. Visiting mistresses' time is represented by fractions of a week, *e.g.* a mistress giving two days a week would reckon as two-fifths of a teacher.

School Numbering.	Staff Required.	Cost per pupil for Assistant Mistresses only.	Cost per pupil including Head Mistress.
		£ s. d.	£ s. d.
100 (Type 1: ages 7-16)	Head Mistress and seven Assistants, plus portions of time equivalent to one more	12 0 0	15 0 0
100 (Type 2: ages 12-16 only)	Head Mistress and six Assistants, plus portions of time equivalent to one more	10 10 0	13 10 0
200	Head Mistress and ten Assistants, plus portions of time equivalent to two more	9 0 0	11 0 0
300	Head Mistress and fifteen Assistants, plus portions of time equivalent to one more	8 0 0	10 0 0
400	Head Mistress and twenty Assistants	7 10 0	9 5 0

And so on in proportion, at twenty pupils per full-time teacher.

Adhering to the recommendations already given in Leaflet No. 1, on "Salaries of Assistant Mistresses," the Head Mistresses' Association would make £150 the average salary of the assistants.

The salaries allotted to head mistresses ought not to fall

below £300, non-resident, however small the school, with provision for increase. The minimum salary of a head mistress of a school numbering 200 pupils should be £400; of a school of 300 pupils, £600; and of a school of 400 pupils, £700. The Head Mistresses' Association considers that it is for the benefit of the whole teaching profession that there should be some prizes in it, even though these may be but few in number. It is much to be desired that these should be increased, as they add greatly to the attractiveness of the profession. At present the salaries of non-resident head mistresses of public schools, roughly speaking, range from £200 (with a very few of £150), to over £500 a year (with a very few of about £1,000).

The Committee approves of the growing practice of creating large schools, and expresses its approval of the system of paying the head mistress partly by capitation fees, because (1) it is important that in a public institution at least one official should be personally concerned in the maintenance and growth of the school, and (2) a reduction in numbers is followed by an automatic saving to the school finance.

APPENDIX C.

ASSOCIATION OF HEAD MISTRESSES.

(FOUNDED 1874—INCORPORATED 1896.)

Secretary, to whom all official communications should be sent: Miss R. YOUNG, 92 Victoria Street, Westminster, S.W.

THE Incorporated Associations of Head Mistresses and Assistant Mistressses have considered the question of the manner of appointing Assistant Mistresses to posts in Secondary Schools, and desire to bring before the Governing Bodies of such schools the great importance of granting to the Head Mistress freedom to select the members of her staff, and to recommend them for final appointment by the Governors or Education Authorities.

They consider it of importance also that an Assistant Mistress should be dismissed only by the Governing Body at the request of the Head Mistress, due opportunity being given to the Assistant Mistress to state her case; but that, during a probationary period to be fixed by the Governing Body—in no case to exceed three terms—it should be possible to terminate the appointment by one month's notice on either side without reference to the Governing Body.

In support of their proposal as to the conditions of engagement in Public Secondary Schools, the Associations offer the following points for consideration:—

(A) THE APPOINTMENT.

The Head Mistress and the Assistant Mistress have to work together for the good of the school, and if they are not acting in harmony their disagreement must injuriously affect the value

of their work. The educational aims of the Head Mistress cannot be successfully carried out by a staff which is not in sympathy with them, nor can the Assistant put forth her fullest energies in the service of the school if she is constrained to use uncongenial methods. In such circumstances even the most loyal efforts on both sides cannot prevent some loss of power; the influence of the staff (which is of the first importance), and consequently the tone and *esprit de corps* of the school must suffer. Where so much depends on personal qualities it is desirable that the Head Mistress should be allowed to choose Assistants who are congenial, as well as capable, and scarcely less important that the Assistant should be free to select a Head with whose character and general aims she is in sympathy.

Again, the value of a teacher is partly relative: an Assistant Mistress may be a useful member of the staff in one school and quite unsuited for work in another. It is therefore necessary in selecting Assistants to consider carefully the special conditions of the school, the character of the pupils, the strong and weak points of the existing staff, and many other circumstances which cannot be so well known to any one as to the Head Mistress.

(b) The Dismissal after a Probationary Period.

A probationary period is desired as a safeguard in the event of a mistake being made in the original appointment. In the professional interest of the Assistant Mistress, to prevent prejudice arising against her in her new work, it is desirable that as little publicity as possible should be given to such initial mistakes.

But the probationary period during which notice may be given on either side (one month's notice before the end of the term is the usual practice) should not be allowed to extend beyond three terms. By the end of that period each of the contracting parties has had sufficient time to judge on the one side of the qualifications of the worker and on the other of the conditions and suitability of the work, and the right of dismissal

should pass to the Governing Body acting on the advice of the Head Mistress: the Assistant Mistress being given the opportunity of stating her case, should she desire to do so.

The Associations wish, in conclusion, to urge the importance of recognising the principle of responsibility in and throughout school life and work. It is the Head Mistress who is ultimately responsible to the Governing Body for the work, progress and character of the school. It is therefore essential that she should have the choice of those who are to work with her, and who, in their turn, become responsible to the Head for the children committed to their care and for the teaching and training which they undertake to give them.

FLORENCE GADESDEN,
President, Association of Head Mistresses.
(*Incorporated 1896.*)

I. M. LEWIS,
President, Incorporated Association of Assistant Mistresses.
(*Incorporated 1897.*)

13th January, 1906.

APPENDIX D.

ASSOCIATION OF HEAD MISTRESSES.

(FOUNDED 1874—INCORPORATED 1896.)

MEMORANDUM FORWARDED TO THE PRESIDENT OF THE BOARD OF EDUCATION, 5TH JANUARY, 1907.

THE Association of Head Mistresses had the honour of forwarding a Memorandum to the Board of Education in November, 1902, and again in December, 1904, in which they dealt with the question of Afternoon School. In the Regulations for Secondary Schools for 1906-7 they read with some anxiety the paragraph on page x as follows :—

> "The Board, however, desire to lay emphasis on a point which is sometimes lost sight of. The exigencies of a time-table in which practically the whole of the regular instruction is confined to the mornings may lead to over-pressure of a particularly dangerous kind, either by lengthening the morning meeting unduly, or by trying to do too much in it. The intensive method of teaching, while it is a desirable change from the somewhat indolent methods of past times, may be carried too far ; and the strain upon scholars kept at full tension for a whole morning (especially if the morning meeting exceeds three hours in length) is probably more severe than the strain of a longer school day taken at less pressure. It is very doubtful whether in any circumstances a school meeting lasting longer than three hours is desirable, or even ultimately economical ; and this limit, in the Board's view, ought

not in ordinary circumstances to be exceeded for any school meeting."

Having in view the very great importance of the whole subject of school hours in its bearing upon mental fatigue and the health of girls in secondary schools, they venture to supplement their previous Memoranda with the following facts, which they offer for the consideration of the Board.

Class I. represents schools with compulsory morning teaching and optional afternoon lessons; Class II. represents schools with compulsory morning and compulsory afternoon teaching.

Class I.	Class II.
Two periods of work are required from the girls, *i.e.*, Morning School and Home Work.	*Three* periods of work are required from the girls, *i.e.*, Morning School, Afternoon School and Home Work.
An interval of 1½ hours is usually allowed between morning school and any afternoon classes at which attendance is optional.	An interval of 1½ hours is sometimes allowed between morning and afternoon lessons, but in many schools it is shorter, to allow the compulsory afternoon classes to end at an hour suitable for the girls' return to their homes.
With this arrangement of work the whole afternoon can be set aside, if desired, for games or other forms of exercise, and home work can be done after a break of 3-4 hours.	Afternoon school must be followed, after a short break, by the necessary home work, in the case of all but the junior pupils.
As afternoon attendance is optional, it is possible for the girls to have midday dinner in their own homes. Those who live at a distance and cannot afford the expense of school dinners, can prepare their lessons at home, after having taken suitable exercise.	The shortness of the interval between morning and afternoon school makes it impossible for many of the girls to dine in their own homes. Consequently, a very large number must remain at school. The cost of the school dinner is often an impossible addition to the school fees in the case of the poorer parents. The result of this is that many girls bring their luncheon, a plan most injurious to growing children.

The girls with only two periods of compulsory work have sufficient time in the afternoon for outdoor games, dancing and gymnastic exercises, although in most cases music lessons or practising have to be fitted in.

The girls who do not live in the *immediate* neighbourhood have very restricted opportunities for games and physical exercise. This is especially the case in schools which are situated in the centre of large towns, and which are obliged to have their playing fields outside the towns.

In many existing schools it would be practically impossible to provide the extra kitchen and dining accommodation that would be required if the bulk of the school remained to dinner, nor would it be possible to provide the necessary space for games, either indoors or out of doors.

The increased supervision and teaching would demand an increase of staff:—

"If teaching be regularly given in the afternoon too, the same staff would serve with necessarily larger classes, *or the staff would have to be increased.*"

("True Cost of Secondary Education" pamphlet, page 9, enclosed herewith.)

It is also to be noted that in Class I. schools all the mistresses are not required at the schools every afternoon. Opportunities are thus given them for "original study, for reading new authors and subjects and for working up old,"[1] and for the long intervals of entire freedom from school work and for physical exercise, which are of the first importance for the general health and vigour of the staff. Even in well-staffed schools of Class II. it is not always possible for every member of the staff to have *one* free afternoon in each week.

In connection with the very important point, *viz.*, the mental fatigue entailed by school work, the Association wish to call attention to:—

I.—Deductions drawn by Dr. Leslie Mackenzie from observations made at the Grammar School, Old Aberdeen, and stated in his evidence before the Royal Commission on Physical Training:—

(1) Experience has shown that concentrated work with

[1] *Report of Board of Education*, 1905-6 (Cd. 3270), p. 53.

long rest following and much individual freedom favours high tension of intellectual work.

(2) It is sound psychology to rely on the fresh hours for the organising and developing of impressions and to let a long rest intervene before preparation is begun.

II.—The views expressed at the International Conference on School Hygiene at Nurnberg, 1904, by two German experts, Dr. Benda, Nerve Specialist, Berlin, and Dr. Hintzmann, Oberrealschuldirektor, Elberfeld.

Dr. Benda stated that the afternoons of several days in the week should be free for gymnastics, sports and games, as the claims of physical education were as important as those of intellectual education.

Dr. Hintzmann maintained that in order to lessen the over-pressure of teachers and pupils all instruction should be confined to the morning, except that required in gymnastics and games, and that the afternoons should be left free for homework, music and sports. He held it proved that where this arrangement had been tried, the pupils were brighter in class and more inclined to study at home, whilst the freedom from teaching in the afternoon had an equally beneficial effect upon the health of the teacher.

At the same Conference, Professor Dr. Schuyten, Antwerp, argued that up to the present time no experiments had proved conclusively the effects of Afternoon School.

The Association respectfully submit that the knowledge of the conditions inducing mental fatigue in schools is at present inadequate, and that further observations and experiments are essential preliminaries to wise action in the future.

Statistics may be held to be of varying value. Nevertheless it is thought that the accompanying record of answers, received from schools belonging to the Association in response to inquiries, is of sufficient interest and value to be brought before the Board of Education.

HEAD MISTRESSES.

In favour of a Compulsory Afternoon School Session	[1]29
Against	169

ASSISTANT MISTRESSES.

In favour of a Compulsory Afternoon School Session	[1]194
Against	1,619
Neutral	16

Of the above 1,303 are old public school girls.

In conclusion, the Association would desire again to bring before the notice of the Board paragraph II. in the Memorandum which they had the honour to forward in December, 1904, and the paragraph headed "Afternoon School" on page 3 of the Memorandum forwarded in 1902, of which copies are enclosed, and which deal with the question.

Signed on behalf of the Executive Committee of the Association of Head Mistresses,

FLORENCE GADESDEN,
President.

5th January, 1907.

Extract from Memorandum drawn up by the Sub-Committee appointed to consider the Science and Art Regulations, 1903, and addressed by the President to the Marquis of Londonderry, President of the Board of Education, 21st November, 1902:—

The Association represents two types of schools:—

Class A.—Schools in which a short period of afternoon school is customary, in addition to morning school, so that the maximum period for teaching is twenty-five hours per week, and where the fees are lower than in those of the other type.

Class B.—The high schools proper, where the regular school session is held in the morning only, five days a week, and is of some four hours in length, with one or two breaks for physical training and recreation.

[1] Of these numbers, many expressed their approval of Compulsory Afternoon School entirely on account of local circumstances which seem to make it desirable.

We are aware that there is a case for discussion in regard to the merits and demerits of the long morning school session and many of us are acquainted practically with both systems; but, speaking as educational experts, with a wide experience and professional knowledge, which entitle our opinion to respect, we are satisfied that the balance of advantage lies with the arrangements at present obtaining in the schools of Class B.[1] The problem for Class A[1] is admitted to be different on account of the circumstances of the pupils. The system we support is indeed the product of experience; it was evolved by the founders of the girls' high schools in order to carry out their aims, and the present generation of head mistresses, many of whom have themselves lived under it as pupils, are strongly convinced of its value.

Among the reasons for this conviction may be given the following:—

I. *The Claims of the Home.*—The high school ideal has always been the combination of home and school life. The girls' day is apportioned so that room should be left for social and domestic duties and the study of music. The afternoon is left free for these purposes. Mothers would object to their girls being at school every afternoon; it would be impossible to enforce regularity of afternoon attendance.

II. *The Importance of Girls Returning Home by Daylight.*—This is felt in every type of high school; in the city schools, serving a large area, where girls travel by train, often long distances; in those of suburban neighbourhoods, where pupils have to walk home along lonely suburban roads; in smaller schools drawing on rural areas where both these difficulties occur, and where even ordinary attendance is affected by the weather. As it is, where voluntary and occasional afternoon sessions (for drawing, sewing, etc.) obtain, the lesson has to be shortened during that large proportion of the school year which extends from November to March. There are also practical difficulties in regard to the dinner hour and school dinners, which do not hold for boys.

[1] Class A corresponds to Class II., and Class B to Class I. on p. 1.

III. *The Health of Girls During the Period of School Life.*—The paramount importance to the community of physical health and vigour in those who are to be the mothers of the next generation will, in our opinion, necessitate recognition of the fact that girls should not be expected to do as much work as boys, or to spend such long hours in the schoolroom. The free afternoon system in high schools has made possible the games and other forms of open-air exercise which have already done so much to improve the physique of our young women. We strongly deprecate any change in our time-tables which would destroy such opportunities.

Extract from Memorandum on the Board of Education's Regulations for Secondary Schools, 1904, presented to the Board of Education, 7th December, 1904:—

Regulations 4 and 5, as they stand, provide for a full curriculum which would require in many secondary schools of the higher type an increase in the number of hours given to actual teaching, and would necessitate compulsory afternoon school.

The Head Mistresses of such schools would very strongly deprecate any alteration in this direction for the following reasons:—

(1) The time available for independent study on the part of the pupil would be curtailed. This the Head Mistresses would greatly regret, as they believe it is largely through the work done by the pupil for herself and by herself that intellectual power is developed.

(2) They desire to preserve the freedom of the afternoon. It seems to them an essential factor in the successful working of secondary day schools for girls (especially of those of the higher type) that the afternoons should be left free for

(*a*) Organised games played under suitable conditions.

(*b*) The claims of the home. It is one of the fundamental advantages of day schools that the pupils should not lose touch with their home life—both in its duties and pleasures. This advantage the Head

Mistresses would desire to retain to the fullest extent for the girls in their schools.

(*c*) The importance of returning home by daylight. This is especially to be desired in suburban neighbourhoods.

(*d*) The health of girls during the period of growth.

(*e*) The necessity of leaving time for individual instruction necessary for the development of special gifts, *e.g.* music, painting, etc., etc.

The Head Mistresses recognise that the recreative and social side of life depends largely on the women of the community, and they have therefore framed curricula which leave time for girls to study these and other subjects or so-called "accomplishments".

They would greatly regret the introduction of any scheme of education less broad than that which they have hitherto carried out.

APPENDIX E.

THE BOARDING-HOUSE SYSTEM.

As we have seen, the ideal of the Girls' High School was the combination of home and school life; it was essentially a day school. But there are, however, many cases in which this combination is impossible. Girls may live in the country, or their home may be in an unhealthy district, such as that of a doctor or clergyman in a slum parish. The home itself may be deficient through the ill-health of the mother, the absorption of the parents in business or in social duties and causes. There will always therefore be a certain number of girls who must be boarders, and for these the system of boarding houses in connection with high schools has been developed. Such houses are as a rule legally and financially independent of the school; they are the private property of some mistress and her relations. The school recognises and inspects and recommends the house, the head mistress being, in general, authorised by the governors to satisfy herself as to the suitability of the house and its arrangements. In some cases the school itself owns the boarding house and is responsible for its actual finances, either undertaking the organisation completely, or by allotting to the mistress who manages the house a fixed sum for each boarding pupil.

Speaking generally, the success of this boarding-house system depends, as in the boys' public schools, on having a teacher in the school as head of the house. Such a mistress, however, should not attempt the house-keeping or the care of the health of the girls; there should be a lady as house-mother or matron, preferably a mother or sister of the house-mistress, who has the same social position as the mistress, and whose status is that of a mother and mistress of a household.

The success of the boarding house depends on both ladies controlling it, and their mutual relation is easier when it is not purely professional.

The head mistress in some schools is forbidden to take boarders, and this is probably, on the whole, a wise provision—especially in a large school, in a town—as she cannot possibly look after boarders and do justice to her other work. In the country there may develop something like the school-house system in a boys' public school, and some head mistresses are fitted for the boarding-house life.

The number of girls in a house is generally small; it is found that in general twelve are needed for financial stability; twenty to twenty-five make a pleasant household, but beyond that larger numbers involve formality and routine. The girls walk to school with the mistress in the morning and return to the boarding house for their midday dinner. They are able to share in the games and the social life of the school, and the boarding houses very often have a special social life of their own, giving dramatic entertainments, holding sales of work for charities, etc.

The system works very well, and the existence of a certain proportion of boarders helps the school authorities in various ways, which would be difficult to particularise in detail.

This note does not profess to deal with the system where the school is mainly a boarding school, as are the great public schools for boys. Such schools for wealthy girls, formed of separate houses but planned and organised as boarding schools, are a marked characteristic of the last twenty years of development in girls' education.

There are indeed signs of a marked revival of boarding schools, both private and proprietary; even some of the new schools founded by local authorities make provision for boarders, especially in agricultural districts.

APPENDIX F.

TRAINING OF TEACHERS IN A GIRLS' HIGH SCHOOL.

THE problem of training teachers is outside the scope of this book, but, as various experiments have been made by the authorities of the Girls' High Schools in this direction, it may be well to indicate at least an outline of what has been done. A full account may be found in a series of papers read at the Annual Conference of the Head Mistresses' Association in 1906.[1]

There are two divisions to the subject, according as to the teachers to be trained possess the complete academic qualification or not; the former class, that is those who have completed their general education, possessing the degree of a University, and who, therefore, need only the special professional training of how to teach, is the class generally considered.

The systems developed are four: (1) The Training College, with its Practising School; (2) the Training Department attached to a high school; (3) the University Training Department whose students in training visit and teach in high schools; (4) and last, the system when the young teacher or student in training is attached to a school, and goes to the University for the theoretical part of her work.

The first is warmly advocated by many persons, especially as it often involves the advantages of residence. The Cambridge Training College and the Maria Grey Training College in London, which is the oldest (founded 1878), are among the best known of the colleges. The Maria Grey has its practising

[1] The pamphlet (to be obtained from the Secretary, 92 Victoria Street, S.W.) is entitled, "The kinds of Training at Present Available for Women Secondary Teachers".

school; the Cambridge Training College prefers that its students should teach in different types of schools, of which, of course, there are many in Cambridge.

The second system, the department attached to a High School, has also been very successful. The students there are in intimate relation with school work and school children. They see good teaching, and their theoretical study is provided by mistresses of method and lecturers, both internal and external. The department of the Clapham High School, Clapham Common, S.W., is one of the best known. St. Mary's College, Paddington, may perhaps be classified under this second division, but it is a training centre rather than a training college, and is in very close relation to the University of London.

The third system may be seen in action where there is a University training department whose students visit and teach in schools. In the University of Manchester the training of primary and secondary teachers, men and women, goes on in the same department, but on the whole its plan may be classified in our third group.

There are found two practising schools, directly controlled by the Professor of Education, one for boys from eleven to fifteen, the other a primary school for children to twelve years of age. For work with older girls, especially in Latin, Science and Modern Languages, the department uses the Manchester High School, where some of the senior mistresses help in the practical training of students. These, both men and women graduates, are attached in small groups—two or three—to a particular class or set, teaching and listening. The mistresses concerned attend the weekly criticism seminar at the College, and receive a small honorarium from the University for their extra work. The students also practise in other secondary schools of the city, the men graduates doing special work at the Grammar School.

The High Master of the Grammar School and the Head Mistress of the High School have been appointed Special Lecturers in the Education Department, these lectures being attended by both primary and secondary teachers and forming part of the system of University lectures, attendance on which

qualifies for the diploma. The combination of different types of teachers, men and women, in the common work of training, for what is, after all, one profession, gives special value to the Manchester system.

The fourth system appears to be, on the whole, the most successful in practice, though it is said by its opponents that in it the theoretical work and the philosophical training of the student are deficient. We may quote from a paper by Miss Gavin of the Notting Hill High School (London, W.) :—

"By this scheme the school undertakes, in co-operation with the University, the practical training of a strictly limited number of students—say one for every hundred girls in the school—all the instructions in theory being left to the University, but co-operation between the school staff and the University staff being secured. Due attention is at length paid to the practical training, without injury to the pupils in school, and the best theoretical training is provided."

Miss Haig Brown, of the Oxford High School, also advocates this method :—

"At the school, where the student is attached to a member of the staff, who is responsible for the supervision of her teaching and corrections, she gives about five lessons a week. The lessons are so chosen that she may have practice in teaching her own subjects to children of all ages and that she may become familiar with the best ways of handling a form. She listens to a certain number of lessons given by specialists on the staff. She usually has some supervision duties of a light and easy nature."

The great merit of this system is that the young student is in daily contact with school children, and that she learns very thoroughly the ways of a real school, which is carrying on its ordinary work quite independent of the need of students in training. She is thus prepared for the "real thing," as she will find it in ordinary professional life.

It is highly probable that the last word on training teachers has not yet been said ; all these experiments have their respective merits. The difficulty of the problem arises in part through the difficulty of the combination of theory and practice. It would

appear from the resolution passed at the Annual Conference of the Head Mistresses' Association in 1906, that in their eyes practice at present is the element more likely to be neglected.

"That this Association accepts no system of training as satisfactory in which the theoretical work of the student is not supplementary to the practical work."

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[Of these, Essex, Liverpool and Derbyshire are the most important for students.]

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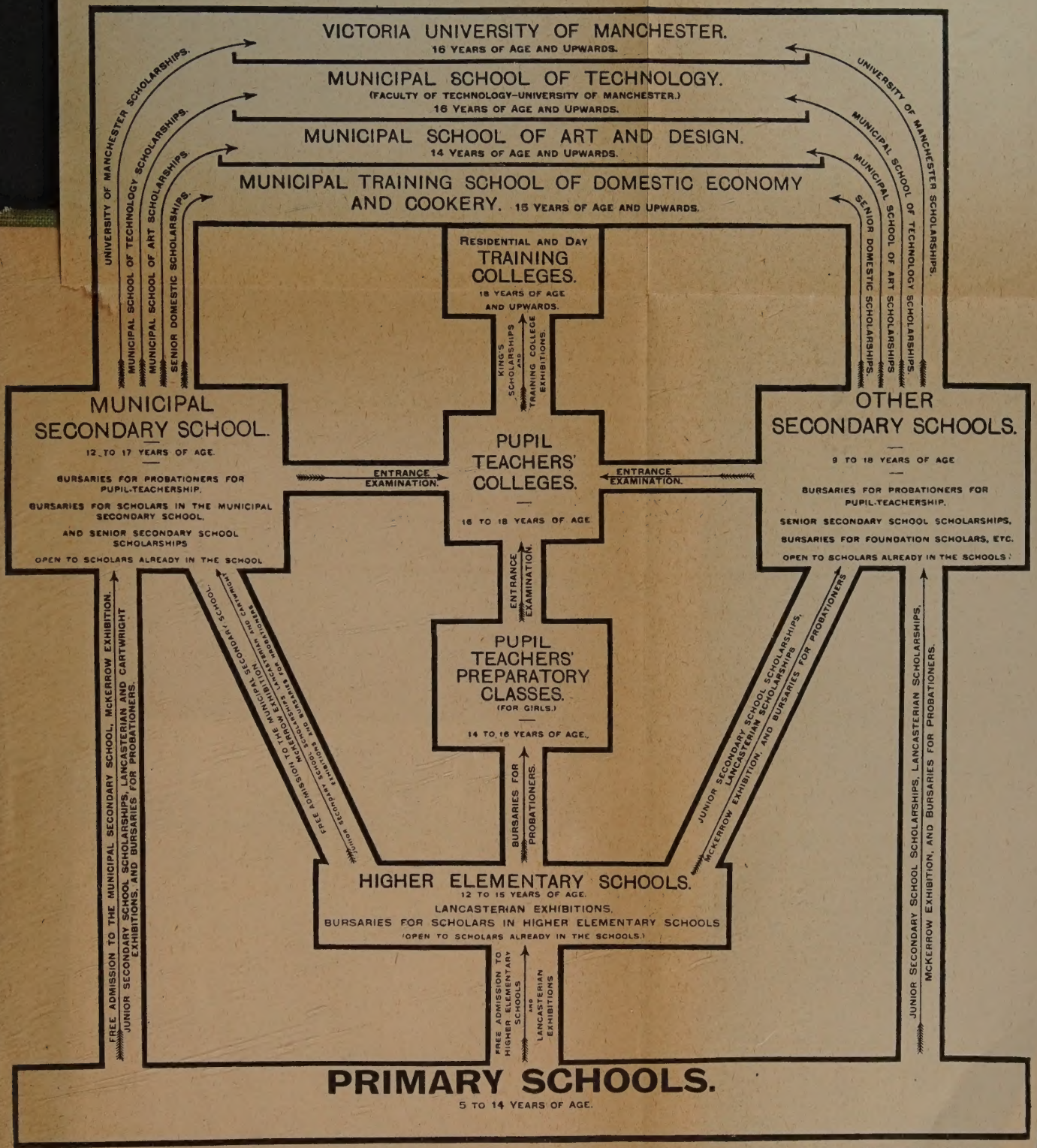
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5 TO 14 YEARS OF AGE.

DIAGRAM ILLUSTRATING THE SYSTEM OF SCHOLARSHIPS AND BURSARIES

OFFERED BY THE MANCHESTER EDUCATION COMMITTEE 1907